This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

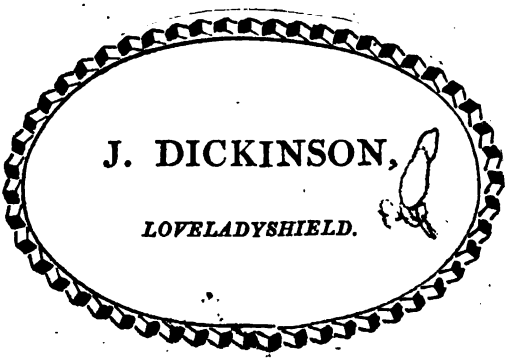
+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

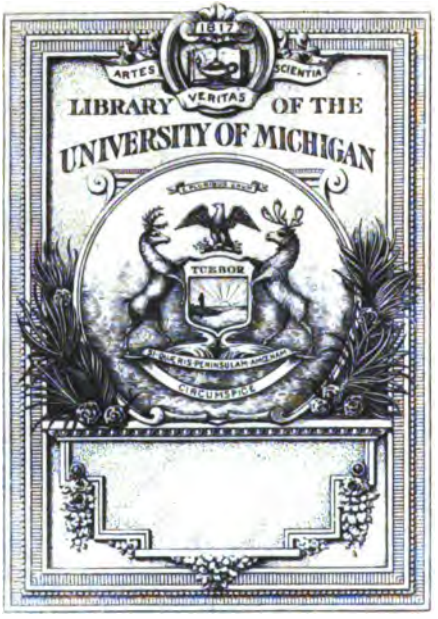
+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`


J. DICKINSON,
LOVELADYSHIELD.

A1
3
.U


1817
ARTES
SCIENTIA
VERITAS
LIBRARY OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
TUEBOR
SIRCUMSPICE

FRONTISPIECE.

Haward. del. J.Baker scalp.

UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

VOL. XCV.

Published by W. Bent, London 1794.

UNIV. OF

THE

UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE

OF

KNOWLEDGE AND PLEASURE;

CONTAINING

Letters	History	Aſtronomy	Philoſophy
Debates	Biography	Geography	Medicine
Eſſays	Antiquities	Mathematics	Chemiſtry
Tales	Voyages	Mechanics	Huſbandry
Poetry	Travels	Architecture	Gardening

AND OTHER

Arts and Sciences;

Which may render it

Inſtructive and Entertaining.

To which occaſionally will be added

An Impartial Account of Books in ſeveral Languages,

And of the STATE of LEARNING in Europe;

ALSO

Of the NEW THEATRICAL ENTERTAINMENTS.

VOL. XCV.

LONDON:

Publiſhed under His Majeſty's Royal Licence,

By W. BENT, at the KING'S ARMS, PATERNOSTER ROW.

MDCCXCIV.

Compl. sets
Clarke
2-2-37
335-11

THE UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE OF KNOWLEDGE AND PLEASURE, FOR JULY, 1794.

VOL. XCV.

On the PURSUIT *and* ACQUISITION *of* KNOWLEDGE: *With a beautiful* FRONTISPIECE, *deſigned by* Haward, *and engraved by* Tookey.

Science! thou fair effuſive ray
From the great ſource of mental day,
Free, generous, and refin'd!
Deſcend with all thy treaſures fraught,
Illumine each bewilder'd thought,
And bleſs my labouring mind.

AKENSIDE.

IT is an acknowledged truth, that many votaries of ſcience have impaired their health by a continual courſe of literary purſuits, without any proportionable returns of pleaſure or improvement. They read, indeed, becauſe they conſider it as a duty, or becauſe they wiſh to be qualified for ſome particular profeſſion; but they often confeſs, that the whole tenour of their ſtudies is one continued toil, and that the pleaſure which reſults from them is a very inadequate reward for exhauſted ſpirits and frequent melancholy.

Students of this deſcription are commonly obſerved to be virtuous and amiable; and it would be a happy circumſtance were they to attend to a few hints, by which their ſtudies may be rendered more pleaſing and advantageous.

One of the firſt and moſt important objects then, in order to derive the proper advantage from our ſtudies, muſt be to render reading itſelf, not a taſk, but a pleaſing employment. Such is the conſtitution of human nature, that no practice will be continued long and regularly, which is not

attended with ſome degree of pleaſure. Upon a ſtudy which is irkſome and unpleaſing we enter with reluctance; our attention to it is ſuperficial; and we are apt to relinquiſh the ſubject, without reflecting upon it in a degree ſufficient for the purpoſes of improvement. Inſtead of thinking ſteadily upon it, we drive it from our minds as a ſource of uneaſy ſenſations. But the heart and affections, the imagination and the memory, co-operate with the underſtanding, in deriving the greateſt advantages from our favourite ſtudy.

It is of the utmoſt conſequence, therefore, to form a ſtrong attachment to ſuch parts of ſcience, and to ſuch books, as our judgment may impel us to ſtudy. To this end various methods are conducive; but of theſe, none, perhaps, are more effectual, than that of converſing with men of ſenſe and genius on the books we would read, and the ſubjects we propoſe to ſtudy. In converſation there is a warmth and ſpirit, which renders thoſe ſubjects intereſting and animated, which might otherwiſe appear cold and inſipid. When we are again alone, we are naturally inclined to ſee what has been ſaid in books on the ſubjects that have been diſcuſſed; and the light obtained by the converſation that has juſt paſſed, is an excellent introduction to our enquiries.

As ſoon as we have obtained, by actual reading, a competent knowledge of a particular book, or ſubject, it will contribute much to animate us in proceeding ſtill further, if we talk of it either with our equals in literary knowledge, or with the learned and experienced. We advance an opinion; our ſelf-love renders us ſolicitous to maintain it; we ſeek the aſſiſtance of a book as an auxiliary, and we read it, therefore, with attention and earneſtneſs. Perhaps, moreover, it will be found difficult to avoid loving that which we attend to frequently and early.

Indeed, if we can once fix our attention very cloſely to a good book, nothing more will be neceſſary to make us love it. As in nature, when two bodies approximate, they are united by the attraction of coheſion; ſo, when the mind attaches itſelf cloſely to any ſubject whatever, it becomes, as it were, united to it, and gravitates toward it with a ſpontaneous velocity. Indeed, there is no ſubject ſo dry, but by fixing our attention upon it, we may at laſt find it productive of great pleaſure. Metaphyſics and mathematics, even in their moſt abſtruſe parts, are known to give the attentive ſtudent a very exalted ſatisfaction. Thoſe parts, then, of human learning, which in their nature are more entertaining, cannot fail of being liked, in a very high degree, when the mind is cloſely and conſtantly applied to them.

In order to acquire the power and habit of fixing the attention, it will be neceſſary, at firſt, to ſummon a very conſiderable degree of reſolution. In beginning the ſtudy of a new language, or of any book or ſcience, which preſents ideas totally ſtrange, the mind cannot but feel ſome degree of reluctance. But if the ſtudent perſevere, in a very ſhort time the reluctance will vaniſh, and he will be rewarded with entertainment. Till this take place, let him make it an inviolable rule, however diſagreeable, to read a certain quantity, or for a certain time, and he will unqueſtionably find, that what he began as a taſk, he will continue as an amuſement.

The uſe of common-place books has been recommended by Mr. Locke, and others of high authority. But Dr. Knox, who to theoretical enquiries muſt be ſuppoſed to have added ſufficient experience in the practical part of education, ſtrongly condemns them: 'There are many ſtudents,' ſays he, 'who ſpend their days in extracting paſſages from authors, and fairly tranſcribing them in their common-place book; a mode of ſtudy truly wretched, which ſeldom repays the ſtudent either with profit or pleaſure,

which

which wastes his time, and wears out his eyes and his constitution. I most seriously advise all those unhappy students, who have been led to think, that the exercise of the hand can impress ideas in the brain; who interrupt their attention by copying; who torture themselves in abridging; and who think, by filling their pocket-books, that they shall enrich their understandings, to stop while they have eyes to see, or fingers to write. They have totally mistaken the road to learning; and, if they proceed in the way too long a time, they may suffer such injuries in it as shall disable them from returning, or seeking a better. After many years spent in this wretched labour, it is no wonder that they close their books, and make the old complaint of vanity and vexation. Nothing really serves us in reading, but what the mind makes its own by reflection and memory. That which is transcribed is not in the least more appropriated than when it stood in the printed page. It is an error, if any suppose, that by the act of marking the words on paper with a pen, the ideas are more clearly marked on the brain than by attentive reading.

'The best method of extracting and epitomizing, is to express the author's ideas, after shutting his book, in our own words. In this exercise the memory is exerted, and the style improved. We make what we write our own; we think; we are active; and we do not condemn ourselves to an employment merely manual and mechanical. But, after all, whatever a few may say, write, or think, it is certain, that the greatest scholars were content with reading, without making either extracts or epitomes. They were satisfied with what remained in their minds after a diligent perusal, and when they wrote, they wrote their own. Reading is, indeed, most justly called the food of the mind. Like food, it must be digested and assimilated; it must shew its nutritive power by promoting growth and strength, and by enabling the mind to bring forth sound and vigorous productions. It must be converted *in succum et sanguinem*, into juice and blood, and not make its appearance again in the form in which it was originally imbibed. It is indeed true (and the instance may be brought in opposition to my doctrine) that Demosthenes transcribed Thucydides eight times with his own hand; but it should be remembered, that Demosthenes flourished before printing was discovered, and that he was induced to transcribe Thucydides, not only for the sake of improvement, but also for the sake of multiplying copies of a favourite author.'

A due degree of variety will contribute greatly to render reading agreeable. For, although it be true, that not more than one or two books should be read at once, yet, when they are finished, it will be proper, if any weariness be felt, to take up an author who writes in a different style, or on a different subject; to change from poetry to prose, and from prose to poetry; to intermix the moderns with the ancients; alternately to lay down the book and to take up the pen; and sometimes to lay them both down, and enter with alacrity into agreeable company or public diversions. The mind, after a little cessation, will return to books with all the voracious eagerness of literary hunger. The intermissions must not be long; or so frequent as to form a habit of indolence or dissipation.

He who would read with pleasure (and it may be repeated, that all who read with real profit must read with pleasure) will attend to the times of the day, and the seasons of the year. The morning has been universally acknowledged to be the best time for study: the afternoon may be most advantageously spent in improving conversation. The very faculties which, before dinner, are capable of engaging in the most acute and sublime disquisitions, are found, by general experience, to be comparatively dull and stupid after it. 'I know not how it is,' said a celebrated writer, 'but all my

my philoſophy, in which I was ſo warmly engaged in the morning, appears like nonſenſe as ſoon as I have dined.'

Very hot weather is particularly unfavourable to reading. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are by no means the ſeaſons in which the fruits of the mind arrived at maturity. Perhaps, a rigid philoſopher will maintain, that the mental faculties are not to be affected by the viciſſitudes of cold and heat; but who will liſten to philoſophy, who is already convinced by actual experience? It is indeed remarkable, that theſe months are ſelected for vacation in the houſes of legiſlature, in the courts of law, and in the ſeats of learning. In cold and inclement weather, when we are driven to the fire-ſide for comfort, we find that delight in our books, which, in the vernal and autumnal ſeaſon, we ſought in the ſunſhine, and in the ſweets of rural ſcenery. We no longer roam, we collect our ſcattered ideas, and find, in the exerciſe of our faculties, that delight, which is the conſequence and reward of exerting, in a proper way, the natural energies of the divine particle that breathes within us.

But at all hours, and in all ſeaſons, if we can reſtrain the licentious rovings of the fancy, ſooth the paſſions of the heart, and command our attention, ſo as to concentrate it on the ſubject we examine, we ſhall be ſure to find our attention amply rewarded. Attend cloſely, and cloſe attention to almoſt any worthy object will always produce ſolid ſatisfaction. In reading, in particular, it may be depended upon as an approved truth, that the degree of profit, as well as pleaſure, will ever be proportioned to the degree of attention.

An Account of the CLIMATE *in the* WEST INDIES; *with intereſting Deſcriptions of the Beauty and Singularity of the Vegetable and Animal Creation in theſe Iſlands.*

[From 'The Hiſtory, Civil and Commercial, of the Britiſh Colonies in the Weſt Indies,' in two Vol. 4to. by Bryan Edwards, Eſq.]

MOST of the countries of which I propoſe to treat being ſituated beneath the tropic of cancer, the circumſtances of climate, as well in regard to general heat, as to the periodical rains and conſequent variation of ſeaſons, are nearly the ſame throughout the whole. The temperature of the air varies indeed conſiderably according to the elevation of the land; but, with this exception, the medium degree of heat is much the ſame in all the countries of this part of the globe.

A tropical year ſeems properly to comprehend but two diſtinct ſeaſons; the wet and the dry; but as the rains in theſe climates conſtitute two great periods, I ſhall deſcribe it, like the European year, under four diviſions.

The vernal ſeaſon, or ſpring, may be ſaid to commence with the month of May, when the foliage of the trees evidently becomes more vivid, and the parched ſavannas begin to change their ruſſet hue, even previous to the firſt periodical rains, which are now daily expected, and generally ſet in about the middle of the month. Theſe, compared with the autumnal rains, may be ſaid to be gentle ſhowers. They come from the ſouth, and commonly fall every day about noon, and break up with thunder-ſtorms; creating a bright and beautiful verdure, and a rapid and luxuriant vegetation. The thermometer at this ſeaſon varies conſiderably; commonly falling ſix or eight degrees immediately after the diurnal rains: its medium height may be ſtated at 75°.

After theſe rains have continued about a fortnight, the weather becomes dry, ſettled, and ſalutary; and the tropical ſummer reigns in full glory.

glory. Not a cloud is to be perceived; and the ſky blazes with irreſiſtible fierceneſs. For ſome hours, commonly between ſeven and ten in the morning, before the ſetting in of the ſea-breeze or trade-wind, (which at this ſeaſon blows from the ſouth-eaſt with great force and regularity until late in the evening) the heat is ſcarcely ſupportable; but, no ſooner is the influence felt of this refreſhing wind, than all nature revives, and the climate, in the ſhade, becomes not only very tolerable, but pleaſant. The thermometer now varies but little in the whole twenty-four hours: its medium, near the coaſt, may be ſtated at about 80°. I have ſeldom obſerved it higher than 85° at noon, nor much below 75° at ſun-riſe.

The nights at this ſeaſon are tranſcendently beautiful. The clearneſs of the heavens, the ſerenity of the air, and the ſoft tranquillity in which nature repoſes, contribute to harmonize the mind, and produce the moſt calm and delightful ſenſations. The moon too in theſe climates diſplays far greater radiance than in Europe: the ſmalleſt print is legible by her light; and in the moon's abſence her function is not ill ſupplied by the brightneſs of the milky way, and by that glorious planet Venus, which appears here like a little moon, and glitters with ſo refulgent a beam as to caſt a ſhade from trees, buildings, and other objects, making full amends for the ſhort ſtay and abrupt departure of the crepuſculum or twilight *.

This ſtate of the weather commonly continues, with little variation, from the beginning of June until the middle of Auguſt, when the diurnal breeze begins to intermit, and the atmoſphere becomes ſultry, incommodious, and ſuffocating. In the latter end of this month, and moſt part of September, we look about in vain for coolneſs and comfort. The thermometer occaſionally exceeds 90°, and inſtead of a ſteady and refreſhing wind from the ſea, there are uſually faint breezes and calms alternately. Theſe are preludes to the ſecond periodical or autumnal ſeaſon. Large towering clouds, fleecy, and of a reddiſh hue, are now ſeen, in the morning, in the quarters of the ſouth, and ſouth-eaſt; the tops of the mountains at the ſame time appear clear of clouds, and the objects upon them wear a bluiſh caſt, and ſeem much nearer to the ſpectator than uſual. When theſe vaſt accumulations of vapour have riſen to a conſiderable height in the atmoſphere, they commonly move horizontally toward the mountains, proclaiming their progreſs in deep and rolling thunder, which, reverberated from peak to peak, and anſwered by the diſtant roaring of the ſea, heightens the majeſty of the ſcene, and irreſiſtibly lifts up the mind of the ſpectator to the great author of all ſublimity.

The waters, however, with which theſe congregated vapours load the atmoſphere, ſeldom fall with great and general force until the beginning of October. It is then that the heavens pour down cataracts. An European who has not viſited theſe climates, can form no juſt conception of the quantity of water which deluges the earth at this ſeaſon: by an exact account which was kept of the perpendicular height of the water which fell in one year in Barbadoes (and that no ways remarkable) it appeared to have been equal to ſixty-ſeven cubical inches.

It is now (in the interval between the beginning of Auguſt and the latter end of October) that hurricanes, theſe dreadful

* In the mountainous and interior parts of the larger iſlands, innumerable fire-flies abound at night, which have a ſurpriſing appearance to a ſtranger. They conſiſt of different ſpecies, ſome of which emit a light, reſembling a ſpark of fire, from a globular prominence near each eye; and others from their ſides, in the act of reſpiration. They are far more luminous than the glow-worm, and fill the air on all ſides, like ſo many living ſtars, to the great aſtoniſhment and admiration of a traveller unaccuſtomed to the country.—In the day-time they diſappear.

dreadful viſitations of the Almighty, are apprehended. The prognoſtics of theſe elementary conflicts, have been minutely deſcribed by various writers, and their effects are known by late mournful experience to every inhabitant of every iſland within the tropics, but their immediate cauſe ſeems to lie far beyond the limits of our circumſcribed knowledge.

Toward the end of November, or ſometimes not till the middle of December, a conſiderable change in the temperature of the air is perceivable. The coaſts to the northward are now beaten by a rough and heavy ſea, roaring with inceſſant noiſe; the wind varies from the eaſt to the north-eaſt and north, ſometimes driving before it, acroſs the higheſt mountains, not only heavy rains but hail; till at length, the north wind having acquired ſufficient force, the atmoſphere is cleared; and now comes on a ſucceſſion of ſerene and pleaſant weather, the north-eaſt and northerly winds ſpreading coolneſs and delight throughout the whole of this burning region.

If this interval, therefore, from December to March, be called winter, it is certainly the fineſt winter on the globe. To valetudinarians and perſons advanced in life, it is the climate of Paradiſe.

The account which I have thus given is, however, to be received not as uniformly exact and minutely particular; but as a general repreſentation only, ſubject to many variations and exceptions. In the large iſlands of Cuba, Hiſpaniola, and Jamaica, whoſe lofty mountains are clothed with foreſts perhaps as old as the deluge, the rains are much more frequent and violent than in the ſmall iſlands to windward; ſome of which are without mountains, and others without wood; both powerful agents on the atmoſphere. In the interior and elevated diſtricts of the three former iſlands, I believe there are ſhowers in every month of the year; and on the northern coaſts of thoſe iſlands, conſiderable rains are expected in December or January, ſoon after the ſetting in of the north winds.

Of the trade-wind, or diurnal ſea-breeze, which blows in theſe climates from the eaſt, and its collateral points, with little intermiſſion or variation nine months in the year, the cauſes having been traced and diſplayed with great diligence and accuracy by Dr. Halley, and repeated by numerous writers, it is unneceſſary for me to treat; but the peculiarity of the land-wind by night (than which nothing can be more grateful and refreſhing) has been leſs generally noticed. This is an advantage, among others, which the larger iſlands of the Weſt Indies derive from the great inequality of their ſurface; for as ſoon as the ſea-breeze dies away, the hot air of the plains being rarefied, aſcends toward the tops of the mountains, and is there condenſed by the cold; which making it ſpecifically heavier than it was before, it deſcends back to the plains on both ſides of the ridge. Hence a night-wind is felt in all the mountainous countries under the torrid zone, blowing on all ſides from the land toward the ſhore, ſo that on a north ſhore the wind ſhall come from the ſouth, and on the ſouth ſhore from the north. Agreeably to this hypotheſis, it is obſervable that in the iſlands to windward, where they have no mountains, they have no land-breeze *.

But I now turn to ſcenes of uncommon variety and luſtre; to a retroſpect of theſe iſlands as they muſt have appeared to the firſt diſcoverers; than which, beheld from the ſea, no

* The account thus given of the land-wind, is chiefly in the words of Dr. Franklin, whoſe deſcription is ſo preciſe and accurate as to admit of no improvement. In Barbadoes, and moſt of the ſmall iſlands to windward, the ſeabreeze blows as well by night as by day. It is ſometimes the caſe in Jamaica in the months of June and July, the land at that time being heated to ſuch a degree, that the air of the mountains is not ſufficiently denſe to check the current which flows from the ſea.

objects in nature could have been more ſtriking to the imagination; not only from the novelty of the ſcene, but alſo from the beauty of the ſmaller iſlands, and the ſublimity of the larger, whoſe lofty mountains form a ſtupendous and awful picture; the ſubject both of wonder and contemplation.

Nor did theſe promiſing territories diſappoint expectation on a nearer ſearch and more accurate inſpection. Columbus, whoſe veracity has never been ſuſpected, ſpeaks of their beauty and fertility in terms of the higheſt admiration: 'There is a river (he obſerves in one of his letters to king Ferdinand) which diſcharges itſelf into the harbour that I have named Porto Santo *, of ſufficient depth to be navigable. I had the curioſity to ſound it, and found eight fathom. Yet the water is ſo limpid, that I can eaſily diſcern the ſand at the bottom. The banks of this river are embelliſhed with lofty palm-trees, whoſe ſhade gives a delicious freſhneſs to the air; and the birds and the flowers are uncommon and beautiful. I was ſo delighted with the ſcene, that I had almoſt come to the reſolution of ſtaying here the remainder of my days; for believe me, ſire, theſe countries far ſurpaſs all the reſt of the world in pleaſure and conveniency; and I have frequently obſerved to my people, that, with all my endeavours to convey to your majeſty an adequate idea of the charming objects which continually preſent themſelves to our view, the deſcription will fall greatly ſhort of the reality.'

How ill informed, or prejudiced, are thoſe late writers, therefore, who, affecting to diſbelieve, or endeavouring to palliate, the enormities of the Spaniſh invaders, repreſent theſe once delightful ſpots, when firſt diſcovered by Columbus, to have been ſo many impenetrable and unhealthy deſerts! It is true, that after the Spaniards, in the courſe of a few bloody years, had exterminated the ancient and rightful poſſeſſors, the earth, left to its own natural fertility, beneath the influence of a tropical ſun, teemed with noxious vegetation. Then, indeed, the faireſt of the iſlands became ſo many frightful ſolitudes, impervious and unwholeſome. Such was the condition of Jamaica when wreſted from the Spaniſh crown in 1655, and ſuch is the condition of great part of Cuba and Porto Rico at this day; for the infinitely wiſe and benevolent governor of the univerſe, to compel the exertion of thoſe faculties which he has given us, has ordained, that by human cultivation alone, the earth becomes the proper habitation of man †.

But as the Weſt Indian iſlands in their ancient ſtate were not without culture, ſo neither were they generally noxious to health. The plains or ſavannas were regularly ſown, twice in the year, with that ſpecies of grain which is now well known in Europe by the name of Turkey Wheat. It was called by the Indians Mahez, or Maize; a name it ſtill bears in all the iſlands; nor does it require very laborious cultivation. This however conſtituted but a part only, and not the moſt conſiderable part, of the vegetable food of the natives. As theſe countries were at the ſame time extremely populous, both the hills and the vallies (of the ſmaller iſlands eſpecially) were neceſſarily cleared of

* In Cuba.

† Dr. Lind, in his 'Eſſay on the Diſeaſes of Hot Climates,' has preſerved an extract from the journal of an officer who ſailed up a river on the coaſt of Guinea, which affords a ſtriking illuſtration of this remark: 'We were (ſays the officer) thirty miles diſtant from the ſea, in a country altogether uncultivated, overflowed with water—ſurrounded with thick impenetrable woods, and over-run with ſlime. The air was ſo vitiated, noiſome, and thick, that our torches and candles burnt dim, and ſeemed ready to be extinguiſhed; and even the human voice loſt its natural tone.' Part I. page 64.

underwood, and the trees which remained afforded a ſhade that was cool, airy, and delicious. Of theſe, ſome, as the papaw and the palmeto *, are, without doubt, the moſt graceful of all the vegetable creation. Others continue to bud, bloſſom, and bear fruit throughout the year. Nor is it undeſerving notice, that the great Father of mankind has diſplayed his goodneſs even in the ſtructure and formation of the trees themſelves; for, the foliage of the moſt part ſpringing only from the ſummit of the trunk, and thence expanding into wide-ſpreading branches, cloſely but elegantly arranged, every grove is an aſſemblage of majeſtic columns, ſupporting a verdant canopy, and excluding the ſun, without impeding the circulation of the air. Thus the ſhade, at all times impervious to the blaze, and refreſhed by the diurnal breeze, affords, not merely a refuge from occaſional inconveniency, but a moſt wholeſome and delightful retreat and habitation.

Such were theſe orchards of the ſun, and woods of perennial verdure; of a growth unknown to the frigid clime and leſs vigorous ſoil of Europe; for what is the oak compared to the cedar or mahogany, of each of which the trunk frequently meaſures from eighty to ninety feet from the baſe to the limbs? What European foreſt has ever given birth to a ſtem equal to that of the ceiba †, which alone, ſimply rendered concave, has been known to produce a boat capable of containing one hundred perſons? or the ſtill greater fig, the ſovereign of the vegetable creation,—itſelf a foreſt ‡?

The majeſtic ſcenery of theſe tropical groves was at the ſame time enlivened by the ſingular forms of ſome, and the ſurpriſing beauty of others of the inferior animals which poſſeſſed and peopled them. Although theſe will be more fully deſcribed in the ſequel, a few obſervations which at preſent occur to me, will, I hope, be forgiven. If it be true, that in moſt of the regions of the torrid zone the heat of the ſun is, as it were, reflected in the untameable fierceneſs of their wild beaſts, and in the exalted rage and venom of the numerous ſerpents with which they are infeſted, the Sovereign diſpoſer of all things has regarded the iſlands of the Weſt Indies with peculiar favour; inaſmuch as their ſerpents are wholly deſtitute of

* The ſpecies here meant (for there are ſeveral) is the palmeto-royal, or mountain-cabbage. Ligon mentions ſome, at the firſt ſettlement of Barbadoes, about 200 feet in height; but Mr. Hughes obſerves, that the higheſt in his time, in that iſland, was 134 feet. I am inclined to believe, that I have ſeen them in Jamaica upward of 150 feet in height; but it is impoſſible to ſpeak with certainty without an actual meaſurement.

† The wild cotton tree.

‡ This monarch of the woods, whoſe empire extends over Aſia and Africa, as well as the tropical parts of America, is deſcribed by our divine poet with great exactneſs:

> The fig-tree, not that kind for fruit renown'd,
> But ſuch as at this day to Indians known
> In Malabar and Decan, ſpreads her arms,
> Branching ſo broad and long, that in the ground
> The bearded twigs take root, and daughters grow
> Above the mother tree, *a pillar'd ſhade,*
> *High over-arch'd, and echoing walks between!*
>
> PARADISE LOST, BOOK XI.

It is called in the Eaſt Indies the banyan-tree. Mr. Marſden gives the following account of the dimenſions of one, near Manjee, twenty miles weſt of Patna in Bengal: diameter, 363 to 375 feet; circumference of the ſhadow at noon, 1116 feet, circumference of the ſeveral ſtems, in number fifty or ſixty, 921 feet. Hiſt. Sumatra. p. 131.

poiſon,

poiſon *, and they poſſeſs no animal of prey, to deſolate their vallies. The crocodile, or alligator, is indeed ſometimes diſcovered on the banks of their rivers; but notwithſtanding all that has been ſaid of its fierce and ſavage diſpoſition, I pronounce it, from my own knowledge, a cautious and timid creature, avoiding, with the utmoſt precipitation, the approach of man. The reſt of the lizard kind are perfectly innocent and inoffenſive. Some of them are even fond of human ſociety. They embelliſh our walks by their beauty, and court our attention by gentleneſs and frolic; but their kindneſs, I know not why, is returned by averſion and diſguſt. Anciently the woods of almoſt all the equatorial parts of America abounded with various tribes of the ſmaller monkey; a ſportive and ſagacious little creature, which the people of Europe ſeem likewiſe to have regarded with unmerited deteſtation; for they hunted them down with ſuch barbarous aſſiduity, that in ſeveral of the iſlands every ſpecies of them has been long ſince exterminated. Of the feathered race too, many tribes have now nearly deſerted thoſe ſhores where poliſhed man delights in ſpreading univerſal and capricious deſtruction. Among theſe, one of the moſt remarkable was the flamingo, an elegant and princely bird, as large as the ſwan, and arrayed in plumage of the brighteſt ſcarlet. Numerous, however, are the feathered kinds, deſervedly diſtinguiſhed by their ſplendour and beauty, that ſtill animate theſe ſylvan receſſes. The parrot, and its various affinities from the maccaw to the perroquet, ſome of them not larger than a ſparrow, are too well known to require deſcription. Theſe are as plentiful in the larger iſlands of the Weſt Indies as the rook is in Europe. But the boaſt of American groves is doubtleſs the colibry, or humming bird; of the brilliance of whoſe plumage no combination of words, nor tints of the pencil, can convey an adequate idea. The conſummate green of the emerald, the rich purple of the amethyſt, and the vivid flame of the ruby, all

* I ſay this on the authority of Brown, Clarlevoix, and Hughes (of whom the firſt compiled the Hiſtory of Jamaica, the ſecond that of Hiſpaniola, and the laſt of Barbadoes) on the teſtimony of many gentlemen who have reſided in ſeveral of the windward iſlands—and on my own experience during a reſidence of fifteen years in Jamaica. In that time I neither knew nor heard of any perſon being hurt from the bite of any one ſpecies of the numerous ſnakes or lizards known in that iſland. Some of the ſnakes I have myſelf handled with perfect ſecurity. I conclude, therefore (notwithſtanding the contrary aſſertion of Du Tertre reſpecting Martinico and St. Lucia) that all the iſlands are providentially exempted from this evil. Nevertheleſs it muſt be admitted, that the circumſtance is extraordinary; inaſmuch as every part of the continent of America, but eſpecially thoſe provinces which lie under the equator, abound in a high degree with ſerpents, whoſe bite is mortal.—Mr. Bancroft, in his account of Guiana, gives a dreadful liſt of ſuch as are found in that extenſive country; and, in ſpeaking of one, of a ſpecies which he calls the ſmall *labarra*, makes mention of a negro who was unfortunately bit by it in the finger. The negro had but juſt time to kill the ſnake, when his limbs became unable to ſupport him, and he fell to the ground, and expired in leſs than five minutes.—Dr. Dancer, in his Hiſtory of the Expedition from Jamaica to Fort Juan on the Lake of Nicaragua, in 1780, which he attended as phyſician, relates the following circumſtance: a ſnake hanging from the bough of a tree bit one of the ſoldiers, as he paſſed along, juſt under the orbit of the left eye; from whence the poor man felt ſuch intenſe pain, that he was unable to proceed: and when a meſſenger was ſent to him a few hours afterward, he was found dead, with all the ſymptoms of putrefaction, a yellowneſs and ſwelling over his whole body; and the eye near to which he was bitten, wholly diſſolved. This circumſtance was confirmed to me by colonel Kemble, who commanded in chief on that expedition. It may not be uſeleſs to add, that thoſe ſerpents which are venomous are furniſhed with fangs ſomewhat reſembling the tuſks of a boar: they are movable, and inſerted in the upper jaw.

happily blended and enveloped beneath a tranſparent veil of waving gold, are diſtinguiſhable in every ſpecies, but differently arrang'd and apportioned in each. Nor is the minuteneſs of its form leſs the object of admiration, than the luſtre of its plumage; the ſmalleſt ſpecies not exceeding the ſize of a beetle, and appearing the link which connects the bird and inſect creation.

It has been frequently obſerved, that although nature is profuſe of ornament to the birds of the torrid zone, ſhe has beſtowed far greater powers of melody on thoſe of Europe; and the obſervation is partly true. That prodigality of muſic which in the vernal ſeaſon renders every grove in Great Britain delightful, is unknown to the ſhades of equatorial regions; yet are not theſe altogether ſilent or inharmonious. The note of the mock-bird is deſervedly celebrated, while the hum of myriads of buſy inſects, and the plaintive melody of the innumerable variety of doves abounding in theſe climates, form a concert, which, if it ſerve not to awaken the fancy, contributes at leaſt to ſooth the affections, and, like the murmuring of a rivulet, gives harmony to repoſe.

THE SECOND VISION OF MIRZAH.

ENCOURAGED by the appearance of the benevolent genius, who had placed before me the rewards that await the virtuous, and animated by the hope of receiving farther inſtruction, I performed every duty of a good muſſulman with a ſcrupulous exactneſs, that might render me ſtill more worthy of the honour that had been conferred on me.

At the end of the month Ramaden, which I had kept ſacred by faſting, according to the ſtrict injunctions of the prophet, I aſcended once more the mountains of Bagdat, in the hope that my unknown friend would again condeſcend to viſit an unworthy but devout worſhipper of Allah, and of his prophet: I was not deceived in this expectation. Having lain down on the brow of an eminence, that commanded a proſpect of the city, and of the plain, I began to meditate on the ſcenes that had formerly paſt before me. While I was thus employed, my ſenſes were again raviſhed by celeſtial muſic, of which the ſweetneſs ariſing from an exquiſite modulation, conveyed a delight that ſurpaſſes deſcription. It deſcended gradually from the higher region; and ceaſing at the moment when it reached the place where I reclined, the heavenly muſician again ſtood before me. He was not now clad in the dreſs of a ſhepherd, although his countenance diſplayed its former benignity. Mine eyes were dazzled by his reſplendent wings, that ſparkled as he moved with innumerable dies, the combination of which almoſt overpowered mortality. A crown glittered on his forehead, and a white robe, edged with gold, falling down to his feet, heightened the majeſty of his aſpect and deportment.

'Mirzah,' ſaid the genius, with a look of ineffable complacency, 'thine oblation of a pure heart, and thine attention to the duties of religion, are acceptable to the great Allah. Carry thine eyes from me to the proſpect before thee, and tell me what thou ſeeſt?'—'I ſee,' anſwered I, turning mine eyes toward the tomb of the prophet, 'the long valley, the tide, the bridge crowded with paſſengers, the rock of adamant dividing an immenſe ocean into two equal parts, and the black clouds that reſt upon the oppoſite ſides of it.'

'Look,' ſaid my conductor, 'more cloſely upon the clouds on the left ſide of the maſs of adamant.' I gazed intently upon the object toward which my ſight was directed; when, the clouds being diſperſed, I ſaw that the ocean was bounded by a chain of in-

* See the Firſt Viſion. Spectator, No. 159.

acceſſible

acceſſible rocks, whoſe ſummits were exceeded in height only by the ſtupendous pile of adamant that overlooked the proſpect.—'Theſe precipices,' ſaid he, 'are the boundaries of an immenſe territory, that is ſurrounded on all ſides by an interminable ocean, and is called the Region of Deſpair. Thou canſt not yet diſcover the inhabitants, who have no means of eſcape from it. But look now upon the ſpace between theſe barriers and the bridge, and tell me what thou diſcovereſt?'—'I ſee,' ſaid I, 'the birds that reſted in great numbers upon the middle arches, taking flight toward theſe rocks, over which they mount ſucceſſively, and are no longer beheld.'—'Theſe,' ſaid he, 'are the beings who drew the unwary paſſengers into pitfalls, which they might have avoided by care and circumſpection. They now follow them into the Region of Deſpair, in order to heighten their puniſhment.'

I gazed, while he was yet ſpeaking, upon my benevolent guide; and having perceived nothing in his countenance, that ſhould prevent me from making another requeſt: 'Let me now,' ſaid I, 'behold the inhabitants of the gloomy manſion before me, and be the witneſs of the horrors of their deſtiny, that I may be deterred from vice as much by the view of its puniſhments, as I have been incited to practiſe virtue by the contemplation of its reward.'

The genius looking upon me, while I pronounced theſe words, with a mixture of pity and ſeverity, raiſed me from the ground, and upon recovering my ſight, of which the rapidity of his flight had deprived me for a moment, I perceived that I was placed upon the ſummit of the adamantine maſs, that divided the ocean into two equal parts. I remained during ſome time motionleſs with aſtoniſhment, upon the place to which I was raiſed; but reviving at the inſtant when my benevolent inſtructor touched my forehead with his hand, I turned my eyes upon the left ſide, and found, that the precipices no longer obſtructed my view of the manſions which they incloſed.

I no ſooner began to contemplate the ſcenes that now opened upon me, than I repented of the requeſt I had made to ſurvey them. I beheld a wide, and, in all appearance, an unbounded region, filled with inhabitants, upon whoſe faces, as they paſſed and repaſſed before me, I could obſerve ſtrongly impreſſed, traces of rage, compunction, remorſe, and diſmay. They were followed by beings who held bows in their hands ready bent, from which they diſcharged envenomed arrows at the miſerable objects of their vengeance, who, as ſoon as they felt the point, ſuddenly ſunk into the earth.

I recoiled, with unutterable horror, from this ſcene of complicated miſery, which a ſuperior power compelled me to behold. The genius (who had been offended at my requeſt to witneſs the deſtiny of thoſe victims of divine diſpleaſure) looked ſternly upon me: 'Brother of the worm,' ſaid he, 'why didſt thou conceive thyſelf to be able to witneſs the puniſhment of the children of darkneſs? I will farther chaſtiſe thee by granting thy requeſt.'—While he ſpoke, the ground upon which I gazed was cleft aſunder; and I beheld under it, by the light blue and livid flame, a region that had hitherto been concealed: I perceived, that they who inhabited this diſmal manſion, were toſſed about in perpetual agitation by waves of liquid fire, that appeared to riſe and fall ſucceſſively, as thoſe of an ocean diſturbed by earthquakes, or vexed by ſtorms. I ſaw that beings of gigantic magnitude, and of horrible aſpect, occupied the higher part of this abyſs; and while I liſtened to what paſſed below, methought I heard the ſound of the ſcourge, the clanking of chains, the raving of frenzy, and the ſhrieking of pain. An univerſal wail, that indicated the

excluſion

exclusion of hope, overpowered my senses. I fell motionless at the feet of my conductor, who immediately raised me up, and smiling upon me with his usual complacency: 'Thou hast seen,' said he, 'O Mirzah, a land of which thou wilt never become an inhabitant. It is the abode of despair; an abode into which those are received, who fall by the fiery arrows that are launched at them in the upper region. Before I leave thee, (said my benevolent friend, with an eye, to which pity gave the mildest expression) let me raise thy dejected heart, by a display that may wear out the impressions of what thou hast seen.'

While he was yet speaking, I perceived that the clouds on the right side of the rock were again dispelled; and that the happy isles, the meandring rivulets, the little shining seas, encircling meadows that were overspread with verdure, and enamelled with flowers; the bowers impregnated with fragrance; the zephyrs that played among the branches; and the persons, crowned with garlands, and arrayed in white robes, who reclined in the luxury of enjoyment under their shade, again captivated my sight, and struck a ravishment to my heart, that cannot be uttered.—Whether the delight I now felt was heightened by the lessened distance, at which I beheld its objects; or whether it was improved by comparison with the scenes that I had so lately contemplated, I cannot determine; but the air, methought, was milder and more exhilarating; the voices sweeter and more musical; the inhabitants more enchantingly beautiful; and the concert of all more exquisitely harmonious, than at the time of my former enjoyment.—'Ah,' cried I, in a transport of which I could no longer suppress the language, 'if I cannot be immediately translated into those glorious and happy regions, be not again offended at the wishes which thou hast stirred up in the heart of a reptile of the dust! Let me have a token of remembrance, whereby I may be supported in my journey through the vale of misery, in the prospect of arriving at the happy abodes beyond it.' 'Mirzah, said the genius, 'I am now about to leave thee, until we shall meet together in yonder scenes of felicity? In the mean time, receive from me what thou wishest to obtain; cast thine eye again upon the bridge.'

I turned, as I was directed, and beheld, among the winged train that hung over the arches, a female of distinguished beauty and elegance, who seemed to be present in all parts at once. She appeared to consider the passengers indiscriminately as her children; and hovering over them, sometimes directed their course by the waving of her hand, and sometimes illuminated their path by the splendour of her eye. I felt an emotion, while I gazed upon this amiable friend of men, which I cannot describe. It was a sensation of delight, that rouzed all the powers of my mind into the most vigorous activity; I felt as if I had received wings, fitted to bear me into whatever region I might choose to direct my flight. My happiness at this moment would have been complete, had it not been chastised by a secret distrust and apprehension, which, while it tempered the sallies of transport, excited me to strenuous efforts, and rendered the task delightful, which had formerly been undertaken with reluctance, and accomplished with pain.

While I was thus employed, I imagined that the being upon whom I looked with admiration, turned her eye toward me; and that she beheld me with a smile that ravished my heart. The bloom of spring was on her cheek, and the radiance of morning sparkled in her eyes. While I yet gazed upon her with ineffable delight, she spread her wings, and alighted in an instant at my side. Nature was re-animated at her approach; Gladness sported in her train; and Happiness seemed to be the handmaid

of

of her will. I drew nearer, methought, to the land of rejoicing; and judged myſelf already to be a member of the ſociety of the bleſſed.

Before I had time to ſpeak, my divine companion raiſed me with one hand, and pointing with the other to the objects that were in ſight, addreſſed to me the following words:

'I, O Mirzah, am the being by whom nature is prevented from languiſhing in her operations. My name is Hope. I am originally a daughter of Paradiſe, from which I voluntarily deſcended to the vale of miſery, in order to alleviate the afflictions of men, and to conduct yonder paſſengers to the happy land, which thou beholdeſt in proſpect.—Yonder (ſhe continued, with an elevated voice, and an erected hand) are the abodes to which the tide of eternity will convey the virtuous! Look upon them under the influence, and with the animation of Hope! I will be the companion of thy journey to the region of felicity, in common with the other children of Virtue. In no peril or difficulty, ſhall mine eye ceaſe to enlighten thy path, or the influence of my counſel be withheld from thy requeſt. My preſent form will indeed be diſſolved, at the time when the tide that rolls under yonder bridge ſhall have ſwallowed up its remaining arches; but riſing from it with ſuperior ſplendour and beauty, I will accompany into the manſions of the bleſſed, the ſpirits whom I have animated in their journey, and will ſhare with them the enjoyment of a reward, that will no longer be the object of deſire.'

My ſpirit was now on the wing to depart: 'Ah!' I exclaimed, 'why am I not at this moment tranſlated to the manſions of the happy? Merciful powers, let me not ſojourn again in the vale of miſery! Bear, O bear me, over the little ſtream that parts me from the happy iſles! The inhabitants already beckon me to approach, and tune their harps to welcome my arrival.'

While I ſpoke, I was again raiſed from the ground; but when I looked around, in the expectation of being united to the ſons and daughters of paradiſe, I found myſelf in the ſtreets of Bagdat, among a concourſe of the devout worſhippers of Allah, who were going to perform, at the moſque, their evening devotions.

Q.

An Improvement on METALLIC CONDUCTORS, *or* LIGHTNING RODS: *By Mr.* Robert Patterſon, *of* Philadelphia; *to whom the Magellanic Gold Medal was given for this Improvement.*

[From the Tranſactions of the American Philoſophical Society.]

FROM the inſtances which now and then occur of houſes being ſtruck with lightning, that are furniſhed with metallic conductors, and the frequent inſtances of theſe conductors having their tops melted off by a ſtroke of lightning, it appears that this admirable contrivance for guarding houſes againſt the dangerous effects of lightning is, in ſome degree, ſtill imperfect. Some improvement ſeems yet to be wanting at both extremities of the rod; at the upper extremity, to ſecure it againſt the accident of being melted, which renders it afterward unfit to anſwer its original intention, viz. drawing off the electric fluid, or lightning, from the paſſing cloud, in a ſilent, imperceptible manner, for it is only *pointed* conductors that poſſeſs this property; and at the lower extremity, to afford a more ready paſſage for the fluid into the ſurrounding earth.

The firſt of theſe intentions would, I am perſuaded, be effectually anſwered, by inſerting in the top of the rod a piece of blacklead, of about two

two inches long, taken out of a good pencil, and terminating in a fine point, projecting but a very little above the end of its metallic ſocket; ſo that, if the blacklead point ſhould happen to be broken off by any accident (of which, however, I think there can be but little danger) ſtill the point of the rod would be left ſharp enough to anſwer the purpoſe of a metallic conductor.

This ſubſtance is well known to be infuſible by the greateſt heat, and hence its uſe in making crucibles; nor is it evaporable, as remarked by Cronſtedt, in his Mineralogy (ſect. 231) except in a ſlow calcining heat, to which it could never be expoſed on the top of a lightning rod.

At the ſame time its power, as a conductor of electricity, is perhaps equal, or but little inferior, to that of any of the metals. A line drawn on a piece of paper by a blacklead pencil will, as I have often experienced, conduct an electric exploſion, ſeemingly as well as a ſimilar line of gilding would do, and that without ever loſing its conducting power, which is not the caſe with gilding.

The ſecond intention is, to facilitate the eſcape of the electric fluid from the lower part of the rod into the ſurrounding earth. It is in many caſes impracticable, from the interruption of rocks, or other obſtacles, to ſink the rod ſo deep as to reach moiſt earth, or any other ſubſtance, which is a tolerable good conductor of electricity. Nor, even if this were practicable, would it I preſume be alone ſufficient to anſwer the deſired intention. Iron buried in the earth, and eſpecially in moiſt earth, will preſently contract a coat of ruſt, which will continually increaſe till the whole is converted into ruſt; but ruſt of iron, and indeed the calx of all metals, is a *non-conductor*, or at moſt but a very imperfect conductor, of the electric fluid. Hence it is eaſy to ſee, that in a few years after a lightning rod has been erected, that part of it which is under ground will contribute little or nothing toward the ſafety of the building. Beſides, the ſurface of this part of the rod is too ſmall to afford an eaſy and copious diſcharge of the electric fluid into the ſurrounding earth, when this is but an imperfect conductor.

As a remedy for theſe defects, I would propoſe that the part of the rod under ground be made of tin, or copper, which are far leſs liable to corroſion or ruſt, by lying under ground, than iron. Or, which perhaps would anſwer the purpoſe better, let this part of the rod, of whatever metal it be made, be coated over with a thick cruſt of blacklead, previouſly formed into the conſiſtence of paſte, by being pulverized and mixed with melted ſulphur (as in the manufactory of the ordinary kind of blacklead pencils) and then applied to the rod while hot. By this means, the lower part of the rod would, I apprehend, retain its conducting power for ages, without any diminution.

In order to increaſe the ſurface of the lower part of the conductor, let a hole or pit of ſufficient extent be dug as deep as convenient, and into this pit let there be put a quantity of charcoal, round the lower extremity of the rod. Charcoal poſſeſſes two properties, which in a peculiar manner fit it for anſwering the purpoſe here in view. Firſt, it is a very good conductor of electricity; and ſecondly, it will undergo little or no change of property by lying ever ſo long in the earth. Thus might the ſurface of that part of the conductor in contact with the earth be increaſed, with little trouble or expence, to any extent at pleaſure; a circumſtance which every one acquainted with electrical experiments muſt acknowledge to be of great importance to the end here propoſed.

[illegible]rough House Ess[illegible]

An Account of LUXBOROUGH HOUSE, *in* ESSEX, *the Seat of Lady* Hughes: *With a perſpective View of that elegant Villa.*

LUXBOROUGH HOUSE is ſituated near Woodford Bridge, in the pariſh of Chigwell, in Eſſex. It was built by lord Luxborough, about the year 1742. It afterward became the property of ſir Edward Walpole, Knight of the Bath, ſecond ſon of the celebrated ſir Robert Walpole, many years prime miniſter of Great Britain, and afterward earl of Orford. Sir Edward Walpole having, it is ſaid, in vain endeavoured effectually to drain the ſurrounding land, which was occaſionally flooded by the inundations of the river Roding, diſpoſed of this villa to Samuel Peach, eſq. at that time an eminent merchant in Bread ſtreet, London, who purchaſed it as a commercial ſpeculation. Mr. Peach ſold it, in the year 1782, to lady Hughes, who, during the abſence of her gallant huſband, the late admiral ſir Edward Hughes, Knight of the Bath, then in the ſervice of his country in the Eaſt Indies, directed all the improvements in the houſe and gardens. In theſe, her ladyſhip has diſplayed a very elegant taſte, with indefatigable perſeverance. She has contrived, moreover, the moſt effectual preſervation againſt any future encroachment of the river, which now adorns the beautiful and fertile grounds, it had once been accuſtomed to deform.

MILITARY ANECDOTES.

WE uſe the word *Panic*, or *Panic Fear*, for a needleſs or ill-grounded fright. What marſhal Saxe terms *le cœur humain* is no other than fear occaſioned by ſurpriſe. It is owing to that cauſe that an ambuſh is generally ſo deſtructive: intelligence of it beforehand renders it harmleſs. At the ſiege of Amiens by the Gauls, Cæſar came up with his army, which did not exceed 7000 men, and began to entrench himſelf in ſuch hurry, that the barbarians judging him to be afraid, attacked his entrenchments with great ſpirit. During the time they were filling up the ditch, he iſſued out with his cohorts; and, by attacking them unexpectedly, ſtruck a panic that made them fly with precipitation, not a ſingle man offering to make a ſtand. At the ſiege of Aleſia, the Gauls, infinitely ſuperior in number, attacked the Roman lines of circumvallation, in order to raiſe the ſiege. Cæſar ordered a body of his men to march out ſilently, and to attack them on the one flank, while he, with another body, did the ſame on the other flank. The ſurpriſe of being attacked when they expected a defence only, put the Gauls into diſorder, and gave an eaſy victory to Cæſar.

A third inſtance may be added no leſs memorable. In the year 846, an obſtinate battle was fought between Xamire king of Leon and Abdoulrahman the Mooriſh king of Spain. After a long conflict, the night only prevented the Arabians from obtaining a complete victory. The king of Leon, taking advantage of the darkneſs, retreated to a neighbouring hill, leaving the Arabians maſters of the field of battle. Next morning, perceiving that he could not maintain his place for want of proviſions, nor be able to draw off his men in the face of a victorious army, he ranged his men in order of battle, and, without loſing a moment, marched to attack the enemy, reſolved to conquer or die. The Arabians, aſtoniſhed to be attacked by thoſe who were conquered the night before, loſt all heart. Fear ſucceeded to aſtoniſhment; the panic was univerſal; and they all turned their backs almoſt without drawing a ſword.

An Account of the SPINNING FEAST, *or Annual Feſtival, inſtituted at* Nuneham, *in* Oxfordſhire, *by Earl and Counteſs* Harcourt, *for the Encouragement of Virtue and Induſtry.*

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

The Series of Letters in your Miſcellany, containing a Tour into Oxfordſhire *and* Glouceſterſhire, *are extremely intereſting, and have afforded me great Pleaſure. I was particularly ſtruck with the Deſcription of* Nuneham Courtenay, *the Seat of Earl* Harcourt, *the perſpective View of that elegant Place which accompanies it, and more eſpecially with the Account of the Village of* Nuneham, *and the excellent Inſtitution eſtabliſhed there by that Nobleman and his amiable Conſort* *. *The Author of* 'A Hiſtory of the principal Rivers of Great Britain,' *(the firſt Volume of which is juſt publiſhed) has likewiſe expatiated, not only on the Beauties of this charming Place, but on this admirable Inſtitution; and, as he was preſent at the laſt Anniverſary of this rural Celebration, and has given a full Account of it, I am happy to tranſcribe his elegant Deſcription, for the Entertainment, and, I may add, the moral Improvement of your Readers. I am, Sir, &c.*

Abingdon, July 5. A RURAL PATRIOT.

OF thoſe beauties which nature has laviſhed and taſte improved in this delightful place, we have given ſuch an account as ſo principal a feature on the banks of the Thames appeared to require. But there is a moral charm attached to Nuneham, which more than rivals all its natural beauties; and we ſhall not inſult our readers by an apology for prolonging our attention to the ſeat of it. It is the annual feſtival of its happy village, called the *Spinning Feaſt*, which has been eſtabliſhed by the noble owners of the place, to encourage virtue and induſtry among its inhabitants: an inſtitution, whoſe very idea is ſo pleaſing, whoſe object is ſo noble, and whoſe ſucceſs is ſo perfect, that, if we are not permitted to enlarge on it in the language of praiſe, we feel it our duty to record it as an object of example. In our progreſs to collect materials for this work, we were ſo fortunate as to viſit Nuneham on the anniverſary of this rural celebration, and are, therefore, qualified to enrich our volume with a hiſtory of it.

About twenty years ago, lord and lady Harcourt formed a deſign to encourage induſtry among the women of their pariſh, by giving annual prizes to a certain number of the beſt ſpinners of thread. An idea afterward ſuggeſted itſelf, that to the prizes of induſtry might be added prizes of merit; ſo that, at length, the importance of the annual feſtival being increaſed by the addition of its object and influence, it has gradually riſen into an inſtitution, which, beſide its moral intereſt, is a moſt delightful ſpectacle, conſidered merely in the character of village feſtivity. A hiſtory of the day on which the feſtival is celebrated will beſt explain the object and effect of this admirable eſtabliſhment. It muſt, however, be premiſed, that the perſons of either ſex deſerving the prizes of merit are named ſome time previous to the feſtival, by an aſſembly of thoſe villagers who have already obtained it. The prizes of induſtry are contended for on the day, and on the ſpot, when and where they are diſtributed. The

* See Letter IV. in our Magazine for December laſt.

morning is appropriated to the prizes of merit; the noon to the village banquet; the afternoon to the conteſt for the prizes of induſtry; an early portion of the evening to the diſtribution of thoſe prizes; and the ſubſequent part to the feſtivity of all.

The villagers, who have obtained the prize of merit in former years, followed the rector of the pariſh to the church through the garden; the reſt of them repaired thither by the common approach; and ſuch as had been already ſucceſsful competitors for the prizes of induſtry wore them on the occaſion. Theſe conſiſt of uſeful articles of dreſs, with ſome ſmall peculiarity of form, or trifling decoration, juſt ſufficient to render the diſtinction conſpicuous. The family attended in the tribune, and the morning ſervice was celebrated with proper pſalms and leſſons, ſelected for the occaſion. The ſervice was ſucceeded by a diſcourſe from the pulpit, in the courſe of which the perſons who had been choſen to receive the prize of merit for the year, and who were conſpicuouſly ſeated in the centre of the church, were ſeparately addreſſed by name, with a particular ſpecification of thoſe meritorious actions and that virtuous conduct, for which they were elected to receive their preſent diſtinction. At the concluſion of the ſervice, lord Harcourt deſcended from the tribune, and preſented the uſual prize for the men to the clergyman, who transferred it to the attending claimants. It conſiſts of a hat, whoſe only diſtinction is the buckle that faſtens the band, which has the name of the perſon to whom it is deſtined, with the date of the year, and the words 'prize of merit,' engraved upon it. The prizes for the women were preſented by lady Harcourt in the ſame manner, and conſiſt of ſtraw hats, decorated with ſcarlet ribband. The names of the happy and diſtinguiſhed villagers were then hung up in the church, under the date of the year, among thoſe who at former periods have been found to deſerve that honour.

The three groups of ſtately elms that range in the park front of the houſe, ſeem to have been placed there to ſerve the purpoſes of this feſtival. Beneath the ſhade of the central group, dinner was ſerved at two ſeparate tables. The upper table was occupied by thoſe who had at different periods obtained the prize of merit; the lower one was ſet apart for the ſeveral candidates for the prizes of induſtry; both of them were moſt plentifully as well as ſuitably ſpread; and the happy gueſts arrived in proceſſion, preceded by a village band of muſic, to partake of the banquet prepared for them. At proper intervals, the healths of their lord and lady, and excellent rector, were drank, who repaid theſe attentions with ſimilar returns. All the domeſtic ſervants attended with eager aſſiduity upon the village gueſts; and that they might not be interrupted in the duties of the feaſt, the family partook of a cold repaſt. Nor is this all; for theſe good people not only appeared to be happy, but at their eaſe; and were rather enlivened into cheerfulneſs, than reſtrained into ſolemnity, by the well-ordered preſence of the noble perſons to whom they were indebted for the felicity of the day.

At an early hour in the afternoon, all the candidates for the prize of induſtry aſſembled beneath the trees of the large clump to the left of the houſe. They are divided into two claſſes of females, under the age of ſixteen, and above it. The ſpinners were ranged in a ſemicircle, the elder claſs on the right, and the younger on the left. We then heard the whirring, and ſaw the motion of forty-two wheels, with the various countenances of the many competitors who governed them; a ſcene which, abſtracted from all ideas of moral influence, diſplayed an uncommon example of pictureſque effect. After a certain period, the ſignal is given, when the wheels ſtop, and each ſpinner reels off the thread. Lady Harcourt herſelf then collected the ſkeins,

and attached the written name of every candidate, carefully folded up, to her reſpective ſkein. Thoſe of the elder claſs were then ſpread on a table, and a maſter weaver determined upon that which was of the beſt manufacture. Lady Harcourt, who continued to preſide, unfolded the name attached to the diſtinguiſhed ſkein, when the ſucceſsful candidate was called, and offered her choice of the various prizes: a ſcarlet knot was, at the ſame time, affixed to a conſpicuous part of her dreſs. This ceremony continues till the prizes are all obtained, but without the application of the ribband, which is an excluſive diſtinction of the firſt. The ſkill of the ſecond claſs underwent the ſame trial, and received ſimilar rewards. The far greater part of the competitors obtained prizes according to the merit of their reſpective work, and the few whoſe endeavours were not crowned with ſucceſs, were diſmiſſed with words of encouragement and favour.

The group of elms to the right of the houſe contains a more ſpacious as well as more regular area than either of the others, and was, on this occaſion, formed into a ball-room of no common elegance. A moveable colonnade, of juſt architectural proportions, and ſuitable embelliſhments, incloſed a ſpace of ninety feet long, and forty-five in breadth. It was ſufficient to reſerve the place for the purpoſes to which it is allotted, while the intercolumniations admitted the gazers of the neighbouring villages to view the ceremonies and amuſements of the ſcene. In the centre, on the right, was a Doric pavillion, elevated on a flight of ſteps, for the reception of the family, and decorated with alluſive ſymbols, and wreaths of artificial flowers. On the oppoſite ſide of the area was an alcove, where the prizes were hung in a gay arrangement, and from whence the diſtribution of them was made. It afterward became an orcheſtra for the muſic. At the upper end of the room, the architectural elevation aſſumed a more enriched appearance. Two porticos, with pediments, were connected by an intermediate range of columns, with large china vaſes filled with flowers, placed between them, and beneath each pediment was a tranſparent emblematic painting, repreſenting a Nuneham cottage. The one was a cheerful picture of induſtry and plenty, the other a diſmal ſcene of idleneſs and want; over the latter hung a wreath of nettles, and above the former was ſeen a chaplet of various flowers. The floor of the room was the turf, and its roof the ſpreading branches of the elms that grow around. The whole was bright with lamps, arranged in all the elegance of illumination. When the evening advanced, lady Harcourt entered the ball-room, preceded by the muſic, and followed by a proceſſion of her villagers, and, after making a circuit of the area, entered the alcove, where the prizes were diſtributed from her hand, not unaccompanied by graceful gratulation. When this charming ceremony was concluded, the muſic occupied the place; nor did any long interval enſue before the commencement of the dance; and as all perſons of a certain appearance were promiſcuouſly admitted, the cloſing ſcene of the feſtival aſſumed the gay ſemblance of elegant pleaſure. It has been our lot to ſee much of the ſplendid ceremonials of the world; but we never ſaw ſuch a day as this; nor do we ever remember to have beheld ſo much feſtive happineſs, that bore the promiſe of ſo much future good. From the noble inhabitants of Nuneham Houſe down to the loweſt ſervant in it, all were zealouſly and anxiouſly attending to the innocent enjoyments and laudable objects of this feſtival. The Nuneham Spinning Feaſt is formed to be a ſchool of virtue and induſtry, and was not made a ſpectacle of vanity. The gueſts invited to ſee it were but few. Among them was the biſhop of Durham, and we cannot refrain from obſerving, that it was graced

graced by his manners, encouraged by his words, and dignified by his preſence.

We ſhould, however, omit a very material circumſtance, relative to the village order of merit, if we did not mention, that beſide the honour conferred on the names of thoſe who are elected into it, by placing them on the walls of the church, the letter M. with a ſtar annexed, is written in a large character over the doors of their reſpective cottages. It is indeed with ſincere pleaſure we obſerve, that very few of them throughout the village are without one of theſe honorary ſymbols, while many of them have more; and ſome are remarked, as containing three perſons who had obtained the praiſe of merit, by the honourable token of three letters. It is alſo underſtood, that if any of theſe people ſhould, by future miſconduct, forfeit the character they have obtained, and the reſpectable rank they hold in the village, their names are to be taken down from the wall of the church, and the diſtinguiſhing letter effaced from the front of their houſes. This diſgraceful conſequence of immoral or diſhoneſt conduct was pathetically enforced by the rector of the pariſh, in his admirable diſcourſe from the pulpit; and by his paſtoral care, affectionate attentions, and excellent example, we are authorized to ſay, the virtue of his pariſhioners has been ſo pre-eminently advanced. It is, however, highly honourable to this inſtitution, that not a ſingle example of diſgrace has occurred. Nor is this all: the reputation of being thus diſtinguiſhed in the village of Nuneham extends its influence and good effects beyond its own limits; and ſeveral of its natives, who have been induced to follow their profeſſions in the adjacent parts of the country, have happily experienced, that the character which they derived from having obtained the prize of merit at Nuneham, has procured for them immediate and ample encouragement in the places of their recent abode.

REMARKS *during a* SIX WEEKS RESIDENCE *in* OXFORDSHIRE *and* GLOUCESTERSHIRE, *in* 1792: *In a Series of Letters to a Friend.*

LETTER X.

Glouceſter, Sept. 1792.

DEAR SIR,

EVERY ſuperficial thinker, and ſome who arrogate a ſuperior degree of penetration, have given it as a ſerious opinion, that happineſs depends upon externals, upon circumſtances of rank, wealth, and ſituation. Hence, among other conſequences, the diſpute whether a town-life or a country life contributes moſt to happineſs. Thoſe who have decided in favour of the country, among whom the whole tribe of poets is to be numbered, think that purity and innocence are neceſſarily and intimately connected with woods and groves, hills, dales, and purling ſtreams; that integrity depends on ſolitude, and that chaſtity is to be found only amid the wildneſs of uncultivated nature; that cottages are, in this reſpect, to be preferred to all buildings of ſuperior architecture; and that the lofty column and gilded roof are friendly to vice and luxury, while the ſmoky hut and humble thatch are the natural reſidence of peace, happineſs, and virtue. Nay, ſome have carried this opinion ſo far, as to prefer the moſt barren and uncultivated lands to thoſe which have been enriched by labour, or are ſpontaneouſly bountiful. It is not wonderful, therefore, to find ſuch men placing the temple of virtue among the precipices of the Pyrenees, or on the plains of Iona.

That the poets ſhould have taken this ſide in the diſpute, may perhaps be as much a matter of neceſſity as of choice; for rural ſcenes are the natural furniture of a poet, and in the country

country he may be allowed to improve his *effect* by the occaſional creation of a mountain, a river, or a foreſt; a liberty which cannot be permitted when he deſcribes the more definite objects in which we are converſant in towns. What can a poet of the fineſt invention make of a crowded city, unleſs he moralizes on its wickedneſs, like Dr. Johnſon, and ſpeak of

'*London!* the needy villain's gen'ral home,
The common-ſewer of Paris and of Rome;
With eager thirſt, by folly or by fate,
Sucks in the dregs of each corrupted ſtate!'

Or, pleaſantly deſcribes its various more harmleſs follies, like Gay, in his *Trivia?*

But, after all, what connexion is there between the ſcenery of a country and the happineſs of man? Or does happineſs depend on *ſituation?* I am willing to allow, and I never was more diſpoſed to do ſo than at the moment I made theſe reflections, that much is to be ſaid in favour of a country-life. Without going the lengths of poetical fancy and fiction, it certainly may be allowed that as far as virtue depends on the abſence of vicious contagion (and whoſe virtue does not in a certain degree depend on that?) the country muſt have the preference to the town. The vices of the former are thoſe which reſult from the impulſe of redundant nature, uncontaminated by invention: thoſe of the latter are the vices of an invention ſharpened by the various arts of pampered luxury and palled appetite. To inſtance a caſe; the illicit commerce between *ſwains* and *nymphs*, although too often occurring for the *abode* of *innocence*, is nevertheleſs *pure* innocence compared with the arts of deliberate ſeduction, which are peculiar to a town-life. The former is in moſt caſes the effect of ignorance, and the familiar invitation of continual opportunity, and the miſtake is willingly rectified by matrimony, a complete act of oblivion: while the latter is the deliberate ſtudy of an unfeeling and depraved mind, and terminates in the miſery of the deluded object.—Even a thief in the country differs as much from a thief of town-manufacture, as the temptation of neceſſity is more excuſable, than the habitual love of ſtealing.

Again, a country-life, as it conduces more to health, may be ſuppoſed more friendly to virtue. The youth whoſe health has never been impaired by vicious indulgence, is generally more guileleſs, and poſſeſſes a more pure mind than he who has been relaxed by the diſſipation of a metropolis. The connexion between body and mind will account for this. An abſence from riotous amuſements, and the wretched artifices employed to conſume time in populous cities, muſt likewiſe in a great degree contribute to decide the queſtion in favour of a country-life. To a man who had mixed much with the gayeſt of the gay world, and had found out his error from reflexion, I might, I am perſuaded, with ſucceſs, addreſs theſe lines from the author already quoted:

'Could'ſt thou reſign the park and play content,
For the fair banks of Severn or of Trent;
There might'ſt thou find ſome elegant retreat,
Some hireling ſenator's deſerted ſeat;
And ſtretch thy proſpects o'er the ſmiling land,
For leſs than *rent the dungeons of the Strand*;
There prune thy walks, ſupport thy drooping flow'rs,
Direct thy rivulets, and twine thy bow'rs;
And, while thy grounds a cheap repaſt afford,
Deſpiſe the dainties of a venal lord:
There every buſh with nature's muſic rings,
There every breeze bears health upon its wings;
On all thy hours ſecurity ſhall ſmile,
And bleſs thine evening walk and morning toil.'

But as to happineſs properly ſo called, and omitting the conſideration

of

of external objects, which however agreeable, are but ſecondary, it is impoſſible to ſay that one place can contribute more to it than another. That which depends on ourſelves, that which, rightly defined, is the peaceful intercourſe between the Deity and man, cannot be affected by any circumſtances of place or ſituation. The temper may, indeed, be ruffled, and the paſſionss excited by ſurrounding objects, but they who to acquire happineſs ſhift their place, *cælum non animum mutant*. The pureſt and moſt dignified virtue is that which ſubſiſts in ſituations the moſt unfavourable to its cultivation; and he who is deemed virtuous in the abſence of temptation, may be reputed courageous in the abſence of danger. Negative merit is an object neither of praiſe nor emulation.

Vice in certain forms and degrees is to be found every where; but it muſt be allowed that a crowded metropolis is the focus into which all its ſcattered rays are collected. Vice may occaſionally appear in any place *naturally*, but a metropolis is its *ſchool*. There the talents of the vicious are combined to produce a ſyſtem more perfect in its kind than is to be found in places remote from its contagion. Indeed, the vice of a country place is ſomething like its education, quite enough for common purpoſes, but not enough to make a figure with. The moſt diſſipated country ſwain, the 'moſt gay and gallant Lothario,' of a village, finds himſelf a mere ignoramus, when he compares accounts with the moſt contemptible hero of a box-lobby playhouſe in London. He may occaſionally tranſgreſs the rules of virtue or humanity, but the checks of conſcience and the pangs of contrition are yet powerful enough to preſerve in his mind a reſpect for goodneſs and decency. He muſt learn to *deſpiſe* theſe in the taverns and ſtews of London, and not there until he has learned to forget the happier days of innocence. Every thing conſidered, therefore, it is not without cauſe that the poets have been laviſh of their praiſes of a country-life, and have with equal art and juſtice put us out of conceit with a metropolis, where the reflecting mind is ſhocked,

'To ſee ten thouſand baneful arts combin'd
To pamper luxury and thin mankind;
To ſee each joy the ſons of pleaſure know,
Extorted from his fellow-creature's woe.
Here, while the courtier glitters in brocade,
There the pale artiſt plies the ſickly trade;
Here, while the proud their long-drawn pomps diſplay,
There the black gibbet glooms beſide the way.
The dome where Pleaſure holds her midnight reign,
Here richly deck'd, admits the gorgeous train;
Tumultuous grandeur crowds the blazing ſquare,
The rattling chariots claſh, the torches glare.
Such ſcenes like theſe no troubles ere annoy!
Sure theſe denote one univerſal joy *!'

Perhaps, likewiſe, for the reaſons given above, one might be tempted to yield a little toward the opinion of thoſe modern ſpeculators, who would aboliſh all great cities; for it is obſerved, that the larger the collection of inhabitants, the more ſhocking and depraved is the degree and kind of vice to be found among them. Paris and London are caſes in point. On any extraordinary commotion, we find that thouſands of rioters and worthleſs perſons creep out from their lurking places, ſuch as perhaps all the reſt of the kingdom cannot produce for ſhameleſs depravity and wanton villany; and that commotion quelled, they retire again, and are forgotten until a ſimilar call invites them to come forth. But it is more eaſy to wiſh for a change in theſe reſpects, than to promote it. Popular cities have their advantages: all the conveniencies of

* Deſerted Village.

life

life cannot be procured elſewhere at ſo eaſy an expence, and with ſo little trouble; and if vice be concentrated, ſo are induſtry, abilities, and energy. All great political events, thoſe of the moſt ſalutary kind, have originated in a metropolis; and it is there we are to look for that combination of talents, and communication of opinions, which produce actions of great national importance and honour. If individual virtue is more in danger there than in the country, it only ſhows that ſuch virtue was before negative, and could not ſtand the teſt of temptation.

But to decide this queſtion, which ſometimes has been agitated with great ability, and thence derives an importance, we ought perhaps to adopt a middle courſe. To minds of a certain texture, the abſence of temptation is neceſſary: all men are not heroes in virtue any more than in arms. Succeſsful warfare, in either, is the attribute of few, and we ought not to refuſe the praiſe that is due to him who has ſagacity to know his own inability, and too great a love for virtue to hazard the loſs of it;

'Who quits a world where ſtrong temptations try,
And ſince 'tis hard to combat, learns to fly.'

On the other hand, to minds of greater vigour, and firmer reſolution, all places will be nearly alike; and ſuch will prefer the metropolis, becauſe it furniſhes them with a greater fund of intellectual entertainment, and becauſe there they may enlarge the happineſs of ſociety, by participating in refined pleaſures, learned ſociety, and poliſhed manners.

If I have dwelt longer upon this ſubject than you wiſhed or expected, I can only ſay in excuſe that when you deſired my correſpondence, you left the manner and the matter alike to my choice, and that it is not eaſy to avoid reflections like theſe, when travelling in a part of the country ſufficiently remote from the metropolis, to afford a ſpecimen of unmixed rural life. Such was the country whence I drew the ſubject of my laſt letter, and which furniſhes me with part of the preſent. I now return to the foreſt.

The hoſpitality of our hoſt at Gunn's Mills would not permit us to depart the morning after our arrival, as we intended, and we dedicated the early part of the day to the neighbouring villages, Abenhall, Michael Dean, &c. Of Abenhall, I have little to ſay. Michael Dean, or Dean Magna, was once the principal town in the foreſt. It is now, by what means I know not, the exact place of all others, from which Dr. Goldſmith muſt have taken the ſcenery of his Deſerted Village. It conſiſts of one long ſtreet, many of the houſes of which have unaccountably been allowed to tumble into ruins, without any effort to repair, or rebuild. The accommodations for ſtrangers may be expected to be indifferent. To us this was a matter of no conſequence, except in one want, which could not be ſupplied. It was neceſſary for us to procure the aſſiſtance of that very uſeful mechanic, a barber; on examining the ſigns we obſerved two; but upon enquiry found that one of the gentlemen had retired from buſineſs, and become a *publican!* The other, a boy, had gone three miles off to ſhave a great man, or a great man's butler, I know not which, and could not return before the afternoon. The other ſhops in this town convinced us of the great decay of its trade; one of them, apparently the moſt opulent, for it had a gay and gaudy outſide, contained aſſortments of goods in ſixteen different branches, which any where elſe would have conſtituted as many ſeparate ſhops.

'Here's Riga, Dutch, and Memel flax
With good long tow, and ſacking backs;
Powder ſugars, coarſe and fine,
Tar, iron, ropes and twine;
Iron hoops both old and new;
Pearl aſhes, ſtarch and blue,
Muſlins, laces, pins and fans,
Muſtard pots, and honey cans, &c.

Yet this is a place of great antiquity, and could once boaſt of much trade and conſequence. *Fuit Ilium!*

In the evening, we returned to Glouceſter.

Next day, we viewed the principal manufactory of Glouceſter, the pin-making, which, although not peculiar to Glouceſter, yet, as being carried on here to a very great extent, is generally ſhewn to ſtrangers as a chief object of attention. Trifling as this article is, I am quite of Mrs. Barbauld's opinion, that 'there is much more entertainment to a cultivated mind in ſeeing a pin made, than in many a faſhionable diverſion which young people half ruin themſelves to attend.' In this manufactory we ſee the vaſt utility of the diviſion of labour. Dr. Adam Smith very juſtly obſerves, that a workman not educated in this buſineſs (which the diviſion of labour has rendered a diſtinct trade) nor acquainted with the uſe of the machinery employed in it, (to the invention of which the ſame diviſion of labour has probably given occaſion) could ſcarce, perhaps, with his utmoſt induſtry, make one pin in a day, and certainly could not make twenty. But ten men employed in the manufactory we viſited, could make nearly fifty thouſand pins in a day. The various proceſſes in making a pin, cleaning the wires, ſtretching, cutting, pointing, making heads, putting them on, &c. amount to eighteen, including the ſticking of the finiſhed pin upon paper, which a different workman afterward ſtamps with the manufacturer's mark. The whole of the operations ſeem eaſy, unleſs perhaps ſome, in which ſtooping is required. There cannot be produced a more ſtriking inſtance of the utility of the diviſion of labour, than in the making of this inſignificant little implement, which if not made in this manner, could not be made at all for general uſe. In other manufactures we obſerve that the diviſion of labour is ſucceſsfully applied; that which comes neareſt to the pin-making, is the making of types, or letter-founding, as it is called. Here, as in the other, the proceſſes are numerous, and performed by perſons of all ages, each of whoſe buſineſs, it appears to be, merely to aſſiſt the other; but in this way, any quantity of types can be prepared with an expedition, that will appear wholly incredible to thoſe who do not take into conſideration the mode of allotting to each man an operation, which from long practice he performs with all the exactneſs and celerity of a machine. Travellers aſſure us, and we ſhall know more of this when lord Macartney returns, that the diviſion of labour in making of Chineſe porcelain far exceeds any inſtance that can be produced of an European manufacture. A piece of porcelain before it is finiſhed, muſt paſs through the hands of ſeventy perſons. Even the labour of painting is divided among a great number of hands, and may ſerve as a ſpecimen of their mode of diviſion in general. The buſineſs of one man is entirely confined to tracing out the firſt coloured circle, which ornaments the brims of the veſſel; another deſigns the flowers, and a third paints them; one delineates waters and mountains, and another birds, and other animals, &c.

The pin-manufactory of Glouceſter gives bread to many thouſands of the poor, as ſome of the proceſſes can be performed by cripples and deformed perſons, who muſt otherwiſe become a burden to the pariſh. When the cloth manufactory was diſcontinued here in 1744, and removed to Stroud, &c. now called the clothing country, a citizen of the place began that of pins, or rather extended it, for it had exiſted many years before. In 1712, this trade is ſaid to have returned 80l. *per* week, but at the period above-mentioned, the wages alone amounted to about the ſame ſum, excluſive of the materials, and together made a return of nearly 300l. *per* week. At preſent, the manufactory returns about 20,000 *per annum* from London, beſide a very extenſive coun-

try trade. When one conſiders the cheapneſs of this little article, and that there are various manufactories of it in London, Southwark, and other parts of the kingdom, beſide Glouceſter, we cannot but wonder where buyers can be found to conſume ſo many millions of pins as any one manufactory can bring to market in a year.

The produce of Glouceſterſhire is chiefly in corn, cheeſe, cider, bacon, and ſalmon. It is not, I believe, reckoned 'a corn country,' there not being a ſufficient quantity grown in the county, and the deficiency is ſupplied from the neighbourhood. *Cheeſe* is the great ſtaple. The beſt of it, called the Berkely cheeſe, from its being made in the vale of that name, is in very high eſtimation, wherever it can be procured genuine; Double Berkely ſells for ſixpence *per* pound at the manufactory, or, about 34l. *per* ton. The vale of Berkely produces from a thouſand to twelve hundred tons yearly, of value from 36,000l. to 40,000l. This may give us ſome idea of the vaſt conſumption of this article throughout the kingdom, ſince one manufactory only ſends out ſo immenſe a quantity. Very little of the beſt of this cheeſe reaches the metropolis, unleſs in preſents. What is commonly ſold there as ſingle or double Glouceſter, is a very indifferent commodity, manufactured every where but in the county from which it takes its name.

Cider is another article made in great quantities, particularly in that part of the county which joins to Herefordſhire. The *ſtyre* cider made in the foreſt of Dean, from the apple of that name, enjoys the higheſt reputation, and ſells for four times as much as the common ſorts. I know not where the cider comes from that is commonly ſold in London, but I can trace no reſemblance that it bears to what is drank either in Glouceſter or Herefordſhire. You have heard much of the capacities of the peaſantry here, when a hogſhead of cider is the object of attack, and you have not heard too much. It is difficult, however, to believe all one hears on ſuch a ſubject. You may take the following as well-authenticated facts. A gallon at a draught is no uncommon feat; but ſix men who are determined to be ſerious in the buſineſs, will empty a hogſhead at a ſitting. You will obſerve that there is ſome difference in quality between the cider drank by the maſters, and that uſed by the ſervants, the latter being new, and poor ſtuff, but not drank with the leſs avidity for that. I have not been able to learn that any other than the common effects of intoxication attend this immenſe pouring down of the juice of the apple. The Severn-men ſay it does not hurt them, as they ſoon *work it off!*

Bacon is prepared in conſiderable quantities in this county, and partly ſent to Briſtol and London. Glouceſter market is thought one of the beſt for ſwine in the kingdom.—Salmon, the chief produce of the Severn, is ſent to London in very great quantities. London is, indeed, almoſt entirely ſupplied with it toward the cloſe of the year. The other fiſh peculiar to the Severn, are the ſhad, of the herring kind, the lamprey, and the elver, and eels. In thoſe days when it was uſual to pay high fines to the king in order to obtain his good will, pacify his anger, or procure a favour, the burgeſſes of Glouceſter promiſed three hundred lampreys, that they might not be diſtrained to find the priſoners of Poictou with neceſſaries unleſs they pleaſed.

A ſlight ſurvey of this county will be ſufficient to convince us of its fertility, without our improving the deſcription by the hyperbolical accounts of ancient county-hiſtorians, who frequently indulged themſelves in imaginary richneſs. William of Malmſbury talks of Glouceſterſhire producing a hundred fold. We read in a Scripture-parable of ſome ground which produced as much, but I am inclined to think this was not the caſe with any part of Great Britain when

our antiquary wrote. He ſpeaks alſo of its rich vineyards. 'The wine has not a diſagreeable ſharpneſs to the taſte, as it is little inferior to that of France in ſweetneſs.' Where thoſe vineyards were cannot now be diſcovered, but many of the taverns of London vend Champaigne and Burgundy, which may be eaſily traced to the orchards of this county and Herefordſhire. Very late writers inſiſt that vineyards did once exiſt here, but I have ſeen nothing to convince me that what once did exiſt might not yet exiſt, and I believe no part of the kingdom, after repeated trials, has been found favorable to the growth of the vine, ſo as to produce wine. I am, dear ſir, yours, &c.

A Preliminary Sketch of the LIFE *of General* DUMOURIER, *prefixed to the intereſting Memoirs of that celebrated Character, written by himſelf, a Tranſlation of which is juſt publiſhed in two Volumes, 8vo.*

I WILL now give you a ſhort hiſtory of my life, which may ſerve as a ſupplement to my memoirs, if I am not allowed time to finiſh them. I was born at Cambray in 1739, of parents not affluent although noble. My father was a man of great virtue and underſtanding; he beſtowed on me a very careful and extenſive education; at eighteen years of age I became a ſoldier; and at two and twenty I was honoured with the croſs of St. Louis, and had received twenty-two wounds.

On peace being made in 1763, I began my travels, to ſtudy the languages and manners of different nations. The emigrants have ſaid that at this time I was employed as a ſpy by the French miniſtry. It is not improbable that the *petits maitres* of Tarentum and Athens (if there were any ſuch men there) have ſaid as much of Pythagoras and of Plato.

In 1768, I was put upon the ſtaff belonging to the army in Corſica; and, having ſerved with reputation in the two campaigns of 1768 and 1769, I was raiſed to the rank of colonel.

In 1770, the duke de Choiſeuil appointed me miniſter to the confederates of Poland; and I commanded a body of men in that country during two campaigns, and conducted ſeveral very important negociations with various ſucceſs. As the meaſures of the confederates were ill concerted, their reſolution was unfortunate, and ended in the partition of Poland.

In 1772, the marquis of Monteynard, miniſter of war, employed me in correcting and reviſing the military code of laws: at the end of the ſame year, this miniſter by the expreſs order of Louis XV, entruſted me with the management of a ſecret negociation relative to the revolution in Sweden; but, having received my inſtructions on this affair immediately from the king himſelf, and unknown to the duke d'Aiguillon miniſter of foreign affairs; I was arreſted at Hamburg in 1773, and conducted to the Baſtile by the orders of that miniſter. The irreſolute Louis XV, yielding to the importunities of madame du Barry his miſtreſs, and the duke d'Aiguillon, diſgraced the virtuous Monteynard, forebore to inform the duke of the authority he had given me to negociate, and ſuffered me to bear the weight of a criminal proſecution, which the duke D'Aiguillon, ſuſpecting the truth, feared to carry to all its extremity. I rejected offers of friendſhip and protection made me by this deſpotic miniſter whom I did not eſteem; and after lying ſix months in the Baſtile I was baniſhed to the caſtle of Caen for three months.

Louis XV died ſoon after; and D'Aiguillon was diſgraced. I had no inclination to take advantage of the expiration of the *Lettre de Cachet*, for the purpoſe of regaining my liberty; I was anxious to be completely juſtified, and therefore petitioned Louis XVI to remove me to the Baſtile and

to order a reviſion of my trial. The king would not permit me to remain in priſon, and commanded M. du Muy, M. de Vergennes, and M. de Sartine to reviſe the trial, and thoſe three miniſters ſigned a declaration that I had been unjuſtly proſecuted. Immediately afterward I was ſent to Liſle, in my rank of colonel, to make a report reſpecting the new military manœuvres which the baron de Pirſch had brought from Pruſſia. I had alſo a commiſſion to examine a plan for improving the navigation of the river Lys, and another plan of forming a harbour in the channel at Ambleteuſe. And theſe employments occupied the latter end of the year 1774, and the whole of 1775.

In 1776, I was joined in a commiſſion with the chevalier D'Oiſy, captain of a man of war, and colonel la Rozière, one of the ableſt engineers in Europe, to determine on a proper place in the channel for the conſtruction of a naval port. I paſſed the year 1777, in the country twenty leagues from Paris. It is the only period of repoſe in my life. At the end of that year, I was invited to Paris, by M. de Montbarey, miniſter of war, on account of the rupture between England and her colonies, which I had long predicted.

In 1778, I procured the office of commandant of Cherbourg to be revived and given to me. Being perſuaded that Cherbourg was better calculated than any other place in the channel for a national harbour, and being aided by the zeal, activity, and influence of the duke d'Harcourt, governor of the province, I obtained a deciſion, in favour of Cherbourg, of a queſtion that had been agitated during a hundred years, concerning the preference to be given to Cherbourg or La Hogue, for the ſite of a naval port. From that time till 1789, I was occupied in ſuperintending the works of Cherbourg; and, during that period, I was but three times at Paris. When I firſt arrived at Cherbourg, it contained no more than ſeven thouſand three hundred inhabitants, and when I quitted that place it contained nearly twenty thouſand inhabitants.

The emigrants, not contented with ſaying I was a ſpy from the miniſtry while I was on my travels, have alſo reported that I was employed by the war-office as one of the tools of its ſecret intrigues, although the time that I have paſſed in Paris, in the different journeys I made to that place during twelve years, did not altogether amount to ſix months, and although in theſe journies I very rarely viſited Verſailles.

Let us review this hiſtory: twenty-two wounds received in battle, ſix campaigns made in Germany, two in Corſica, and two in Poland, important truſts diſcharged, a city raiſed from obſcurity to a flouriſhing condition, a naval port eſtabliſhed, fortified, and rendered fit for the purpoſes of the navy, twenty years ſpent in travels, that had a knowledge of mankind for their object, and in fine the ſtudy of languages, of the military art, and of the policy of nations; ſuch are the events of which it is compoſed. It will be happy for France if ſhe produce many ſuch deſigning and ſelfiſh men. If thoſe who were called by their birth, their wealth, and their dignities to maintain the honour, and produce the happineſs of their country, had qualified themſelves with equal care, France would either have needed no revolution, or the revolution would have been more happy and honourable.

For my part, the revolution was not neceſſary to raiſe me to dignities. I ſhould ſoon have been lieutenant-general in the ordinary courſe of promotion, and was on the point of receiving honours that men at that period ſought after. I poſſeſſed an income of 20,000 livres, which was equal to my wants and deſires. Yet I could not but ſee that France was diſgraced abroad, and ruined within. I foreſaw that ſhe haſtened to this latter period of her miſery; and have often

often warned thoſe of the miniſters, whom I eſteemed to be honeſt men, of the event.

When the revolution commenced, I deprived its character of much of its evil in the place where I commanded. At Cherbourg, the exceſſes of the populace were puniſhed by me with death; but the people could not accuſe me of being inimical to their liberty. Thoſe who were placed in like ſituations would have rendered an ineſtimable ſervice to their country, in exerting the ſame firmneſs with the ſame diſcernment.

The military governments of towns in France being ſuppreſſed, I went to Paris, where, during two years, I ſtudied the influence and character of the revolution. The flight of the princes of France was an irreparable injury done to the cauſe of the king. I foreſaw that the exerciſe of the *Veto* would not produce the end that was propoſed by it, and would occaſion the ruin of the monarch's cauſe, and I oppoſed it by all the means that were in my power.

In 1791, I was appointed to the command of the country from Nantes to Bourdeaux. At that period a religious war raged in La Vendée, and the people laid waſte the caſtles and lands of the nobility. I had the good fortune to calm the minds of the people, and to preſerve tranquillity in that country till the month of February 1792, when I was recalled to Paris, was raiſed to the rank of lieutenant-general, and appointed miniſter of foreign affairs.

I am reproached with having cauſed the war by my counſels; but I ſhall prove that the war was already inevitable, when I began my adminiſtration, and that indeed it might be ſaid to have commenced. I acknowledge, however, that my opinion was decidedly for the declaration of war, as was alſo that of the king, who, not only approved of my memorial to the national aſſembly on that ſubject, (which was three days in his hands) but made corrections in it, and himſelf compoſed the diſcourſe he delivered to the aſſembly on that occaſion.

At the end of three months, finding myſelf embarraſſed by the various factions, and being ſincerely deſirous to ſee the king's council poſſeſſing proper dignity, and his meaſures governed by conſtitutional principles, I changed the miniſtry, and obtained a promiſe that the king would ſanction two decrees which appeared expedient to his ſervice. Having done ſo, I would have retired from the adminiſtration. The king would not grant me his permiſſion; the miniſtry was again changed by his order, and I took the war department. But, ſoon perceiving that the court had deceived me, I reſolved not to be the inſtrument of their intrigues. I predicted to the unhappy king and queen all the misfortunes in which they were involving themſelves, and I gave in my reſignation three days after being appointed miniſter of war.

I was not driven from the councils of the king as the emigrants have aſſerted, but reſigned in oppoſition to the entreaties of Louis. He was two days before he would accept of my reſignation, and he did not ſuffer me to depart without expreſſing the deepeſt regret.

After that period, I commanded the armies with the greateſt ſucceſs. If the French had diſplayed as much moderation and virtue as they have enjoyed of ſucceſs, peace had been long ſince reſtored to Europe; Louis would have been on his throne; and the nation would not have been, as now, ſtained with crimes, and the ſlave of anarchy. France would have been happy and illuſtrious under her conſtitution and her king.

In-

Important REFLECTIONS *on certain ſuppoſed Effects of* CHRISTIANITY.

[From Archdeacon Paley's View of the Evidences of Chriſtianity, 3 Vol. 12mo.]

THAT a religion, which, under every form in which it is taught, holds forth the final reward of virtue, and puniſhment of vice, and propoſes thoſe diſtinctions of virtue and vice, which the wiſeſt and moſt cultivated part of mankind confeſs to be juſt, ſhould not be believed, is very poſſible; but that, ſo far as it is believed, it ſhould not produce any good, but rather a bad effect upon public happineſs, is a propoſition, which it requires very ſtrong evidence to render credible. Yet many have been found to contend for this paradox, and very confident appeals have been made to hiſtory, and to obſervation, for the truth of it.

In the concluſions, however, which theſe writers draw, from what they call experience, two ſources, I think, of miſtake, may be perceived.

One is, that they look for the influence of religion in the wrong place: The other, that they charge Chriſtianity with many conſequences, for which it is not reſponſible.

1. The influence of religion is not to be ſought for, in the councils of princes, in the debates or reſolutions of popular aſſemblies, in the conduct of governments toward their ſubjects, or of ſtates and ſovereigns toward one another, of conquerors at the head of their armies, or of parties intriguing for power at home, (topics, which alone almoſt occupy the attention, and fill the pages of hiſtory) but muſt be perceived, if perceived at all, in the ſilent courſe of private and domeſtic life. Nay more; even *there* its influence may not be very obvious to obſervation. If it check, in ſome degree, perſonal diſſoluteneſs, if it beget a general probity in the tranſaction of buſineſs, if it produce ſoft and humane manners in the maſs of the community, and occaſional exertions of laborious or expenſive benevolence in a few individuals, it is all the effect which can offer itſelf to external notice. The kingdom of Heaven is within us. That which is the ſubſtance of the religion, its hopes and conſolations, its intermixture with the thoughts by day and by night, the devotion of the heart, the controul of appetite, the ſteady direction of the will to the commands of God, is neceſſarily inviſible. Yet upon theſe depends the virtue, and the happineſs, of millions. This cauſe renders the repreſentations of hiſtory, with reſpect to religion, defective and fallacious, in a greater degree than they are upon any other ſubject. Religion operates moſt upon thoſe of whom hiſtory knows the leaſt; upon fathers and mothers in their families, upon men ſervants and maid ſervants, upon the orderly tradeſman, the quiet villager, the manufacturer at his loom, the huſbandman in his fields. Among ſuch its influence collectively may be of ineſtimable value, yet its effects in the mean time little, upon thoſe who figure upon the ſtage of the world. *They* may know nothing of it; they may believe nothing of it; they may be actuated by motives more impetuous than thoſe which religion is able to excite. It cannot, therefore, be thought ſtrange, that this influence ſhould elude the graſp and touch of public hiſtory; for what is public hiſtory, but a regiſter of the ſucceſſes and diſappointments, the vices, the follies, and the quarrels, of thoſe who engage in contentions for power?

I will add, that much of this influence may be felt in times of public diſtreſs, and little of it in times of public wealth and ſecurity. This alſo increaſes the uncertainty of any opinions that we draw from hiſtorical repreſentations. The influence of Chriſ-

Chriſtianity is commenſurate with no effects which hiſtory ſtates. We do not pretend, that it has any ſuch neceſſary and irreſiſtible power over the affairs of nations, as to ſurmount the force of other cauſes.

The Chriſtian religion alſo acts upon public uſages and inſtitutions, by an operation which is only ſecondary and indirect. Chriſtianity is not a code of civil law. It can only reach public inſtitutions through private character. Now its influence upon private character may be conſiderable, yet many public uſages and inſtitutions, repugnant to its principles, may remain. To get rid of theſe, the reigning part of the community muſt act, and act together. But it may be long before the perſons, who compoſe this body, be ſufficiently touched with the Chriſtian character, to join in the ſuppreſſion of practices, to which they and the public have been reconciled, by that which will reconcile the human mind to any thing, habit and intereſt. Nevertheleſs, the effects of Chriſtianity, even in this view, have been important. It has mitigated the conduct of war, and the treatment of captives. It has ſoftened the adminiſtration of deſpotic, or of nominally deſpotic governments. It has aboliſhed polygamy. It has reſtrained the licentiouſneſs of divorces. It has put an end to the expoſure of children, and the immolation of ſlaves. It has ſuppreſſed the combats of gladiators *, and the impurities of religious rites. It has baniſhed, if not unnatural vices, at leaſt the toleration of them. It has greatly meliorated the condition of the laborious part, that is to ſay, of the maſs of every community, by procuring for them a day of weekly reſt. In all countries, in which it is profeſſed, it has produced numerous eſtabliſhments for the relief of ſickneſs and poverty; and, in ſome, a regular and general proviſion by law. It has triumphed over the ſlavery eſtabliſhed in the Roman empire: it is contending, and, I truſt, will one day prevail, againſt the worſe ſlavery of the Weſt Indies.

A Chriſtian writer †, ſo early as in the ſecond century, has teſtified the reſiſtance, which Chriſtianity made to wicked and licentious practices, though eſtabliſhed by law and by public uſage. 'Neither in Parthia, do the Chriſtians, though Parthians, uſe polygamy; nor in Perſia, though Perſians, do they marry their own daughters; nor, among the Bactri or Galli, do they violate the ſanctity of marriage; nor, wherever they are, do they ſuffer themſelves to be overcome by ill-conſtituted laws and manners.'

Socrates did not deſtroy the idolatry of Athens, or produce the ſlighteſt revolution in the manners of his country.

But the argument to which I recur is, that the benefit of religion being felt chiefly in the obſcurity of private ſtations, neceſſarily eſcapes the obſervation of hiſtory. From the firſt general notification of Chriſtianity to the preſent day, there have been in every age many millions, whoſe names were never heard of, made better by it, not only in their conduct, but in their diſpoſition; and happier, not ſo much in their external circumſtances, as in that which is *inter præcordia*, in that which alone deſerves the name of happineſs, the tranquillity and conſolation of their thoughts. It has been, ſince its commencement, the author of happineſs and virtue, to millions and millions of the human race. Who is there that would not wiſh his ſon to be a Chriſtian?

Chriſtianity alſo, in every country in which it is profeſſed, hath obtained a ſenſible, although not a complete influence, upon the public judgment of morals. And this is very import-

* Lipſius affirms, (Sat. B. i. c. 12) that the gladiatorical ſhows ſometimes coſt Europe twenty or thirty thouſand lives in a month; and that not only the men, but even the women of all ranks, were paſſionately fond of theſe ſhows. See biſhop Porteus' Sermon XIII.

† Bardeſanes ap. Euſeb. præp. evang. vi. 10.

ant.

ant. For without the occaſional correction which public opinion receives, by referring to ſome fixed ſtandard of morality, no man can foretell into what extravagancies it might wander. Aſſaſſination might become as honourable as duelling. Unnatural crimes be accounted as venial as fornication. In this way it is poſſible, that many may be kept in order by Chriſtianity, who are not themſelves Chriſtians. They may be guided by the rectitude which it communicates to public opinion. Their conſciences may ſuggeſt their duty truly, and they may aſcribe theſe ſuggeſtions, to a moral ſenſe, or to the native capacity of the human intellect, when in fact they are nothing more, than the public opinion reflected from their own minds; an opinion, in a conſiderable degree, modified by the leſſons of Chriſtianity. 'Certain it is, and this is a great deal to ſay, that the generality, even of the meaneſt and moſt vulgar and ignorant people, have truer and worthier notions of God, more juſt and right apprehenſions concerning his attributes and perfections, a deeper ſenſe of the difference of good and evil, a greater regard to moral obligations and to the plain and moſt neceſſary duties of life, and a more firm and univerſal expectation of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, than, in any heathen country, any conſiderable number of men were found to have had *.'

After all, the value of Chriſtianity is not to be appreciated by its *temporal* effects. The object of revelation, is to influence human conduct in this life; but what is gained to happineſs by that influence, can only be eſtimated by taking in the whole of human exiſtence. Then, as hath already been obſerved, there may be alſo great conſequences of Chriſtianity, which do not belong to it as a revelation. The effects upon human ſalvation, of the miſſion, of the death, of the preſent, of the future agency of Chriſt, may be univerſal, though the religion be not univerſally known.

Secondly, I aſſert that Chriſtianity is charged with many conſequences, for which it is not reſponſible. I believe that religious motives have had no more to do, in the formation of nine tenths of the intolerant and perſecuting laws, which in different countries have been eſtabliſhed upon the ſubject of religion, than they have had to do in England with the making of the game laws. Theſe meaſures, although they have the Chriſtian religion for their ſubject, are reſolvible into a principle, which Chriſtianity certainly did not plant, (and which Chriſtianty could not univerſally condemn, becauſe it is not univerſally wrong) which principle is no other than this, that they who are in poſſeſſion of power do what they can to keep it. Chriſtianity is anſwerable for no part of the miſchief which has been brought upon the world by perſecution, except that which has ariſen from *conſcientious* perſecutors. Now theſe perhaps have never been, either numerous, or powerful. Nor is it to Chriſtianity that even *their* miſtake can fairly be imputed. They have been miſled by an error, not properly Chriſtian or religious, but by an error in their moral philoſophy. They purſued the particular, without adverting to the general conſequence. Believing certain articles of faith, or a certain mode of worſhip, to be highly conducive, or perhaps eſſential to ſalvation, they thought themſelves bound, to bring all they could, by every means, into them. And this they thought, without conſidering what would be the effect of ſuch a concluſion, when adopted among mankind as a general rule of conduct. Had there been in the New Teſtament, what there are in the Koran, precepts authorizing coercion in the propagation of the religion, and the uſe of violence toward unbelievers, the caſe would have been different. This diſtinction could not have been taken, or this defence made.

I apologize for no ſpecies nor de-

* Clark, ev. nat. rev. p. 208. ed. v.

gree of perſecution, but I think that even the fact has been exaggerated. The ſlave trade deſtroys more in a year, than the inquiſition does in a hundred, or perhaps hath done ſince its foundation.

If it be objected, as I apprehend it will be, that Chriſtianity is chargeable with every miſchief, of which it has been the *occaſion*, though not the motive; I anſwer, that, if the malevolent paſſions be there, the world will never want occaſions. The noxious element will always find a conductor. Any point will produce an exploſion. Did the applauded intercommunity of the pagan theology preſerve the peace of the Roman world? Did it prevent oppreſſions, proſcriptions, maſſacres, devaſtations? Was it bigotry that carried Alexander into the Eaſt, or brought Cæſar into Gaul? Are the nations of the world, into which Chriſtianity hath not found its way, or from which it hath been baniſhed, free from contentions? Are their contentions leſs ruinous and ſanguinary? Is it owing to Chriſtianity, or to the want of it, that the fineſt regions of the eaſt, the countries *inter quatuor maria*, the peninſula of Greece, together with a great part of the Mediterranean coaſt, are at this day a deſert; that the banks of the Nile, whoſe conſtantly renewed fertility is not to be impaired by neglect, or deſtroyed by the ravages of war, ſerve only for the ſcene of a ferocious anarchy, or the ſupply of unceaſing hoſtilities? Europe itſelf has known no religious wars for ſome centuries, yet has hardly ever been without war. Are the calamities, which at this day afflict it, to be imputed to Chriſtianity? Hath Poland fallen by a Chriſtian cruſade? Hath the overthrow in France, of civil order and ſecurity, been effected by the votaries of our religion, or by the foes? Among the awful leſſons, which the crimes and the miſeries of that country afford to mankind, this is one, that, in order to be a perſecutor it is not neceſſary to be a bigot; that in rage and cruelty, in miſchief and deſtruction, fanaticiſm itſelf can be outdone by infidelity.

Finally, if war, as it is now carried on between nations, produce leſs miſery and ruin than formerly, we are indebted perhaps to Chriſtianity for the change, more than to any other cauſe. Viewed therefore even in its relation to this ſubject, it appears to have been of advantage to the world. It hath humanized the conduct of wars; it hath ceaſed to excite them.

The differences of opinion, that have in all ages prevailed among Chriſtians, fall very much within the alternative which has been ſtated. If we poſſeſſed the diſpoſition, which Chriſtianity labours, above all other qualities, to inculcate, theſe differences would do little harm. If that diſpoſition be wanting, other cauſes, even were theſe abſent, would continually riſe up, to call forth the malevolent paſſions into action. Differences of opinion, when accompanied with mutual charity, which Chriſtianity forbids them to violate, are for the moſt part innocent, and for ſome purpoſes uſeful. They promote enquiry, diſcuſſion, and knowledge. They help to keep up an attention to religious ſubjects, and a concern about them, which might be apt to die away in the calm and ſilence of univerſal agreement. I do not know that it is in any degree true, that the influence of religion is the greateſt, where there are the feweſt diſſenters.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, June 1794.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	30,27	48,5	55	51	5	N 1	. fine
	2	30,25	58	58	49,5	3	N 1	. clear eve
2	7	30,19	51	56	55,5	4	NNE 1	. fine
	2	30,14	66,5	59	45	3	NNE 1	: little wet
3	7	30,14	53,5	57,5	55	5	N 1	. chiefly cloudy and little wet at times
	2	30,11	57,5	59,5	55,5	5	N 2	
4	7	30,11	47	57	56	5	N 1	. leſs cloudy
	2	30,07	62	59,5	51	4	N 1	
5	7	30,08	51	56,5	56	5	N 1	little wet
	2	30,01	59	59	55	5	N 1	. little wet
6	7	29,97	49,5	56	52	4	N 1	. few clouds but hazy
	2	29,80	64	59	49	2	W 2	hazy. little rain at night
7	7	29,73	56	59	53	4	NW 1	
	2	29,65	61,5	60.5	51	4	NNE 1	. fine. more wind and cloudy at times
8	7	29,85	50	56,5	51	2	N 1	
N	2	29,85	62	61	46	3	WNW 1	
9	7	29,87	52,5	58,5	51	5	W 1	
	2	29,94	62,5	60,5	47,5	5	NNW 1	
10	7	29,95	57	60	51	2	W 1	
	2	29,93	64,5	61,5	49	4	SW 1	. fine night
11	7	29,91	54	59	52	5	SW 1	. fine
	2	29,51	66	62	49	3	S 1	
12	7	29,90	56	58,5	55	3	SW 1	
	2	29,96	68,5	63	49,5	2	S 1	
13	7	29,96	58	61,5	54	2	S 1	
	2	29,88	74	66	49,5	2	E 1	. much lightning: thunder and rain
14	7	29,87	55	64	56	3	E 1	
	2	29,91	71	68,5	53,5	4	NNW 1	
15	7	30,12	60	64	55	3	N 1	
	2	30,10	70	68	51	3	SE 1	
16	7	30,13	57	62	51,5	1	ESE 1	
	2	30,13	69,5	65.5	45,5	1	E 2	
17	7	30,13	54,5	61	52	3	NE 1	
	2	30,13	65,5	64,5	47	2	NE 1	
18	7	30,09	53,5	60	52	5	NE 1	. fine
	2	30,03	75	66	46	2	ENE 1	. cloudy night
19	7	29,98	57	61	57,5	5	E 1	
	2	29,82	60	62	57	5	E 1	: little wet
20	7	29,66	59	62,5	56,5	4	WSW 1	. fine
	2	29,62	67	65	48	3	WSW 2	
21	7	29,76	56,5	62	57	2	S 1	
	2	29,89	67,5	65	50	3	N 1	. wind E at eve
22	7	30,02	58,5	63	57,5	2	E 1	
	2	30,02	75	68	47	2	SE 1	. wind E
23	7	30,00	57	62,5	58	4	E 1	. fine
F	2	29,91	73,5	67	46	2	E 1	
24	7	29,87	63,5	66	52	2	E 1	hazy
	2	29,82	75	70	45,5	2	SW 1	. ſhower
25	7	29,79	61,5	67	49,5	5	NNW 1	. leſs cloudy at times
	2	29,80	67	68,5	47	4	NNW 1	. wind WSW
26	7	29,85	61,5	67	50	3	W 1	
	2	29,89	71	69	45	3	NW 1	. clear night
27	7	30,14	59,5	62,5	52,5	4	N 1	. fine
	2	30,21	71	69	42	2	NW 1	
28	7	30,28	60	65	49	2	NNW 1	
	2	30,26	74,5	69	42,5	3	SSW 2	. wind E
29	7	30,26	61	66	52,5	1	E 1	
	2	30,18	71,5	69,5	43,5	1	E 2	
30	7	30,00	63	66	52	1	E 1	
	2	29,90	77	71	46,5	2	E 2	

Observations *on the* Diseases *in* June 1794.

Inflammations of the eyes were very frequent, and now and then obſtinate, terminating, if neglected, in ſlight ulcerations of the *cornea*. Repeated topical bleedings, with mercurial and ſaline purgatives, were the beſt remedies. The inflammation was liable to return on the leaſt imprudence, ſuch as ſitting in a current of cool air when heated, or committing exceſs; for the weather being very warm and the perſpiration conſiderable, people were frequently off their guard, and ſome other diſeaſes were the conſequence of their neglect in this reſpect, as well as from their drinking cold liquors; ſuch as *diarrhœa*, and occaſionally *anaſarca*; but neither of theſe complaints were obſtinate, being eaſily cured by emptying the firſt paſſages, and reſtoring the obſtructed perſpiration. Hooping-cough ſtill continued, but was mild. Meaſles were likewiſe frequent, but the ſmallpox rare.

On the Propensity *to* Imitation, *and its* Effects *during* Life.

It has been often and tritely obſerved, that man comes into the world a more helpleſs animal than almoſt any other. He is longer, likewiſe, before he can aſſiſt himſelf, and for many years is the mere creature of imitation, doing nothing of himſelf, but as he ſees others. At what period does he ceaſe to be thus dependent on others? He flatters himſelf that he becomes very early his own maſter, and *invents* his own actions and his own modes of thinking. But is he not miſtaken? Some, indeed, ſeem to acquire the power of thinking very early, but by far the majority never acquire it at all. It admits, likewiſe, of a queſtion, whether the wiſeſt have leiſure to conſider, and diſtinguiſh between what they do of themſelves, and what they do from mere imitation. When the inſtruction which we acquire in our earlieſt youth is over (and *that* we acquire principally by imitation) we are enliſted, if I may uſe the expreſſion, or, we become part of a company or circle of friends and acquaintances, whoſe manners we acquire imperceptibly, from a propenſity (of which we are not always ſenſible) to imitation; and we are ſeldom anxious to inveſtigate the propriety of what we do in this way, but are content to act like others, and to be like thoſe we live with, eſteem, and reſpect.

When we firſt look about us in ſociety, we find ſome things which excite our aſtoniſhment, ſome which give us pleaſure, and attract our affections, and many things of which we are wholly ignorant. We find certain laws, orders, and eſtabliſhments fixed for the regulation of manners: we ſoon become familiar with theſe: their yoke ſeems eaſy, and their burden light; for nothing is very difficult to a young and vigorous mind. That which excited our aſtoniſhment becomes common; and we learn to play our part in ſociety, merely by ſeeing how others perform theirs. As we advance, however, we begin to ſpy out defects, and we take upon us to offer objections and propoſe improvements; but we ſeldom can felicitate ourſelves on being ſucceſsful. It is the work of years to overturn the eſtabliſhments of prejudice, and convert eaſe into activity. Sudden revolutions happen in every thing, excepting in our habits of life; and a ſyſtem of government may be introduced in one twentieth part of the time, which would be requiſite to change, for example, the hour of dining, or to introduce a cocked hat inſtead of a round one. To the imperious dictates of faſhion we ſubmit, either becauſe we have not ſenſe to object, or becauſe we are too timid and cautious to ſet up our opinion in

oppoſition to that of a multitude. A love of eaſe, and an averſion to being thought ſingular, induce us to comply, as others have complied before us; and we join in the chorus without having previouſly ſtudied the muſic.

Youth is generally diſtinguiſhed by an equality of manners. What one does, all do; and to give a ſketch of general manners, at this period of life, it is quite ſufficient to ſelect any one individual as an example of the whole. There may, indeed, be exceptions, but no exception can be of ſufficient validity to deſtroy a rule. At a period of farther advancement, when, for inſtance, a man *ſettles in life*, as it is called, he is ſtill not left to lay down a plan for himſelf. He is not left to ſtarve from the poverty, or acquire fame from the fertility of his invention. He is told that he cannot greatly err, if he does what other people do; and to be *neighbour-like* is the whole duty of man. He has examples to follow, which he cannot eaſily avoid following, and laws propoſed to him, which he thinks it is much eaſier to obey than to alter. What his neighbours do, he imitates, in the grand outline, at leaſt, if not to a degree of minuteneſs; and he is ſo little ambitious of being diſtinguiſhed, that he contents himſelf to ſwim down the ſtream of life, an inconſiderable drop in the vaſt moving maſs. Mankind (by which word I always mean the bulk of mankind) is made up of ſuch placid characters, of men of whom the diſtant world knows nothing, who are endeared to their own circle of friends only by the tie of mutual inſignificance and reciprocal imitation, and whoſe names would periſh with them, were they not ſometimes, according to cuſtom too, engraved on a marble ſtone in a churchyard. Even here, where one might expect to find ſome diſtinction of character, we wander among an uniform collection of tender fathers, affectionate wives, and dutiful children; and the utmoſt that inquiſitive poſterity will be able to learn is, that they were all—*of this pariſh!*

The ſame uniformity of character and manners will be found to accompany old age, in its various ſtages and purſuits. And whoever will attentively obſerve the different periods of human life, muſt be ſenſible, that the power and inclination to *imitate* which is viſible in childhood, never deſerts us, and that the bulk of mankind remain all their lives mere imitators, although many boaſt, and all think, that in every action they are free agents, and can do *as they like*; whereas the fact is, that they are doing only what others like.

I have hitherto been ſpeaking of *manners* only; and it would be a thing of very little conſequence, that our manners ſhould be always thus regulated by hereditary or traditional laws. But the connexion between manners and morals is ſuch, that it is very difficult to ſeparate them, or to prevent their acting upon each other. And it becomes a very ſerious queſtion, whether we do not loſe much by ſubmitting our ſenſes and faculties to the whim of others, and by neglecting to call forth our own powers. There is reaſon to think, that the capacity of every man's mind is much greater than he exerts, and this is a reſource which, however important to happineſs, we cannot profit by, if we content ourſelves with a tame imitation of others. We ought to conſider that we cannot always be in ſociety, and ought, therefore, to improve ſuch internal reſources, as may cheer and animate us in ſolitude and ſickneſs. And we ought likewiſe to conſider, that if we were always in ſociety, we muſt, by an unvarying imitation of manners, acquire that eaſe and indifference to morals, which too frequently blinds us to the deformity of vice, and the approach of danger. It is admirably ſaid by Dr. Johnſon, of his friend Gilbert Walmſley, that 'he grew firſt *regular*, and then pious.' Regularity of manners is eſſential to morality; and no man was ever truly great and good, who went all the length which cuſtom or faſhion preſcribe.

The

The more we follow the example of others, without being able to give a reaſon for what we do, the more we detract from the dignity of thinking beings. The more we neglect to analyze and examine the manners of the world we live in, the more we neglect one of the moſt important duties of human life; we part with our liberty to preſerve our ignorance; and with a full capacity to comprehend, and ſpirit to reſiſt, we yet become willing ſlaves to the meaneſt follies, and moſt pernicious vices. There is much in all this of which we cannot but be aſhamed, when we give it a moment's conſideration. That man who reſigns the power of thinking, and, conſequently, the privilege of acting, will never arrive at any character of dignity, or eminent uſefulneſs. The ſame thing cannot be equal and ſuperior at the ſame time. What is common, is mere imitation, and imitation is eaſy; what is great and eminent is invention, and invention is genius.

Man, it muſt be allowed, is a gregarious animal, and ſociety is the greateſt of bleſſings; but to render it ſo in the moſt perfect degree, to render it highly pleaſurable, and an object of taſte as well as of uſefulneſs, it muſt not be uniform. Men muſt not think and act by word of command. Nor muſt they ſuppoſe that the only valuable diſtinctions of life are thoſe of rank and wealth; for thoſe preſent no diſtinction whatever to an eye morally *picturesque*. That which raiſes one man above another is ſuperiority of underſtanding, both natural and improved. What diſtinctions does wealth confer? It may raiſe a man to a higher ſeat in a room, or may make him ride when others walk, but theſe diſtinctions are merely artificial; the reſpect they command is mechanical, conſiſting of certain geſticulations of the body, in which the mind has no ſhare, or a very bad one, if it be moved by envy. If wealth raiſes a man to real diſtinction, it muſt only be when he uſes it to promote the happineſs of his fellow creatures; but even in this caſe, the man of little wealth is as much diſtinguiſhed as he who poſſeſſes immenſe treaſures. From the inſtance of the widow's mite, the pious biſhop Wilſon remarks, 'the poor have this advantage over the rich, that they can ſurpaſs them in liberality.'

The uniform manner in which the bulk of mankind live, following each others examples without thought, and retailing each others ſentiments without conſideration, as it tends to the encouragement of a lax ſyſtem of manners, opens a wide field for the labours of thoſe who have taken upon them to inſtruct mankind. The moraliſt and the divine, even the phyſician and the legiſlator, have all been labouring time immemorial to correct the tendency of evil example, and to incline men to think for themſelves. An example might be offered where all theſe inſtructors become neceſſary. What is called faſhionable life conſiſts of a ſeries of manners and practices, which affect the morals, deſtroy the principles of Chriſtianity, impair the health, and often lead to crimes puniſhable by the civil magiſtrate. If we examine this life accurately, nay even ſuperficially, we ſhall perceive that it conſiſts in an irrational imitation of certain practices, which are ſuppoſed to contribute to happineſs, and to ſecure reſpect, but which, in reality, poiſon the ſources of human felicity, and will not for a moment bear the teſt of reflection.

None are ſo apt to ſuffer by imitation without thought as the young. The deſire to please, and to avoid ſingularity at an age when ſingularity is thought a crime, renders them an eaſy prey to evil example. The more frequent their compliances, the more they fail in proper ſpirit and reſolution. 'A young man, 'ſays the author of the Tatler, 'muſt be at leaſt three or four years in London before he dares ſay *no*.' And if he requires ſo much time, it is to be feared, he has bought his reſolution dear. 'A

young

young man,' adds the ſame author, 'is afraid to deny any body going to a tavern to dinner; or, after being gorged there, to repeat the ſame with another company at ſupper, or to drink exceſſively, if deſired, or to go to any other place, to commit any other extravagancy propoſed. The fear of being thought covetous, to have no money, or to be under the dominion or fear of his parents and friends, hinders him from the free exerciſe of his underſtanding, and affirming boldly the true reaſon, which is, his real diſlike of what is deſired. If you could cure this *flavish facility*, it would ſave abundance at their firſt entrance into the world.'

There is, however, an extreme which ſome people run into, and which it is but fair to mention; which is, an affected ſingularity, and a petulant habit of objecting to all common modes and forms. This, although probably it is not likely to be general, is not the leſs diſguſting when we meet with it. A man of this diſpoſition is the moſt diſagreeable companion, and the leaſt uſeful friend. Compliance in things not immoral, or in things indifferent, is one of the duties we owe to ſociety, from which if we receive benefits, we muſt naturally be expected to contribute ſomething. True politeneſs conſiſts in making thoſe we are in company with, happy, as far as depends upon ourſelves. This may be done without our conceding any principle of ſerious importance, or countenancing any practice of acknowledged perniciouſneſs. Men, on the contrary, who aim at ſingularity in little things, and ſuperior wiſdom in trifles, generally betray a mind nowiſe formed to produce great and manly actions. With the exception of this affected ſingularity, it will be found a very important duty never to take the practices of others *for granted*, nor to comply where conſcience or reflection has pointed out the neceſſity of objecting. When manners change they uſually change from one extreme to another; a ſure proof of the thoughtleſſneſs to which modern manners owe their riſe. To find out the mean between theſe two extremes will not be difficult, and to adhere to it will not be diſreſpectful. Extravagance in dreſs or manners, although adopted by the majority, cannot laſt long; familiarity renders it diſguſting; but decency and temperance are permanent, and can never be laughed into contempt.

Manners, ſimply as ſuch, can ſeldom become the objects of ſerious conſideration. The colour of a ribbon, or the ſhape of a coat, are things of little conſequence; but when the cuſtoms of the world trench upon morals, they acquire importance enough to engage our moſt ſerious thoughts. And we ſhall profit little by the vigour or capacity of our minds, and ſhall have ſtill leſs to boaſt our ſpirit and independence, if, in matters of that kind, we are content to ſubmit our underſtandings to the caprice of the ignorant, the giddy, and the inſenſible. They who have no other excuſe for their actions than that *others do the ſame*, will never want an excuſe to palliate any folly, however ridiculous, or any crime, however baſe.

CAIUS.

CHARACTERISTIC ANECDOTES.

THE late celebrated marſhal Laudohn would have entered, when young, into the ſervice of the great Frederic, king of Pruſſia; but that monarch, with all his penetration, formed a very erroneous judgment of the young officer (as he himſelf found in the ſequel) and pronounced that he would never do; in conſequence of which Laudohn entered into the ſervice of the empreſs-queen Maria-Thereſa, and became one of the moſt formidable opponents of his Pruſſian majeſty.—Marſhal Turenne

reane was much more accurate in his opinion of our illuſtrious John duke of Marlborough, whoſe future greatneſs he predicted, when he was ſerving in the French army as enſign Churchill, and known by the unmilitary name of 'the handſome Engliſhman.'—In the fine arts, moreover, we have ſeen no leſs accurate predictions of future eminence. As the ſcholars of Rubens were jeſting and playing with each other, in the abſence of their maſter, one of them was accidentally thrown againſt a piece, on which Rubens had juſt been working; and a conſiderable part of it was entirely diſfigured. Another of the pupils ſet himſelf immediately to repair it, and completed the deſign before his maſter returned. Rubens, on reviewing his work, obſerved a change, and a difference that ſurpriſed and embarraſſed him. At laſt, ſuſpecting that ſome one had been buſy, he demanded an explanation; adding, that the execution was in ſo maſterly a manner, that he would pardon the impertinence on account of its merit. Encouraged by this declaration, the young artiſt confeſſed, and explained the whole, pleading, that his officiouſneſs was merely to ſcreen a comrade from his maſter's anger. Rubens anſwered, 'If any one of my diſciples ſhall excel me, it will be yourſelf.'—This pupil was the great Vandyck.

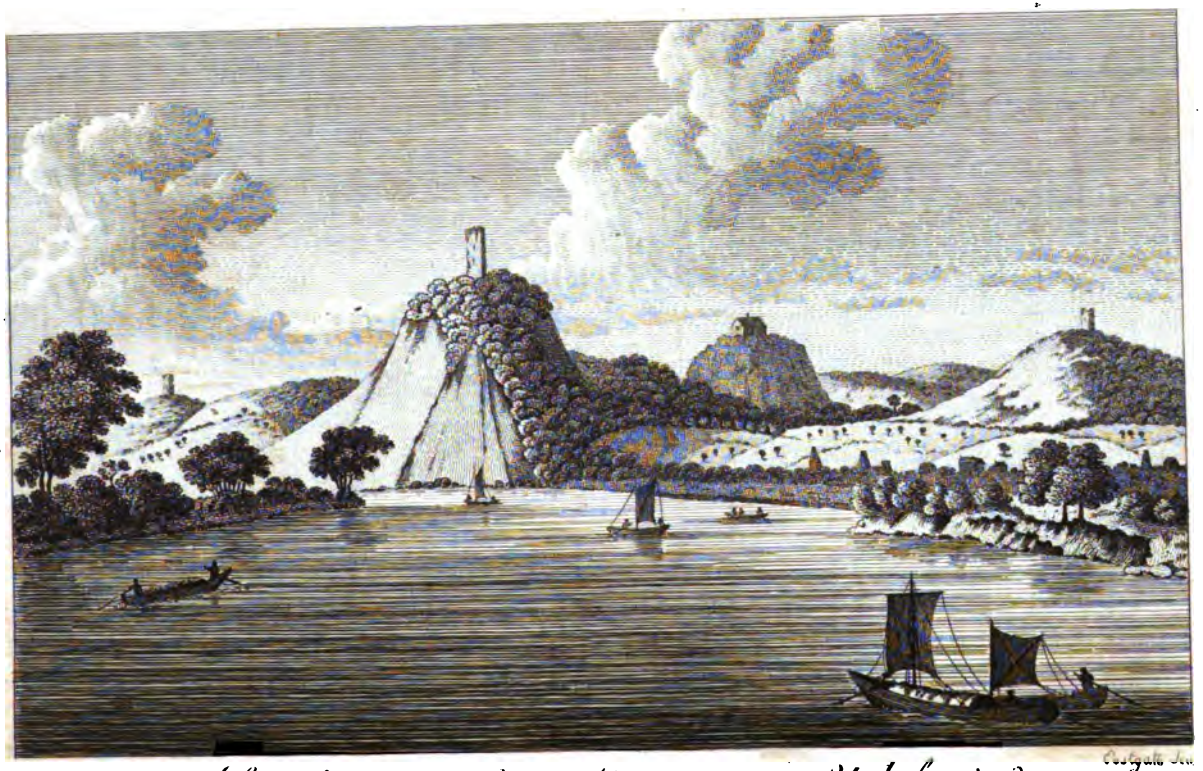
When grief ſubſides, it then, and no ſooner, finds a tongue. We complain, becauſe complaining is an effort to diſburden the mind of its diſtreſs. This obſervation is finely illuſtrated by a ſtory which Herodotus records. Cambyſes, when he conquered Egypt, made Pſammenitus the king priſoner; and, for the trial of his conſtancy, he ordered his daughter to be dreſſed in the habit of a ſlave, and to be employed in bringing water from the river: his ſon alſo was led to execution with a halter about his neck. The Egyptians vented their ſorrow in tears and lamentation: Pſammenitus only, with a downcaſt eye, remained ſilent. Afterward, meeting one of his companions, a man advanced in years, who, being plundered of all, was begging alms, he wept bitterly, calling him by his name. Cambyſes, ſtruck with wonder, demanded an anſwer to the following queſtion: 'Pſammenitus, thy maſter Cambyſes is deſirous to know why, after thou hadſt ſeen thy daughter ſo ignominiouſly treated, and thy ſon led to execution, without exclaiming or weeping, thou ſhouldſt be ſo highly concerned for a poor man no way related to thee?'—Pſammenitus returned the following anſwer: 'Son of Cyrus, the calamities of my family are too great to leave me the power of weeping; but the misfortunes of a companion, reduced in his old age to want of bread, is a fit ſubject for lamentation.'

The following ſtriking anecdote of prodigality reduced to poverty and want, yet keeping up its character in the very hour of deſpair, is thus related by Mrs. Piozzi, in the firſt volume of her Britiſh Synonymy: 'Two gentlemen of Italy were walking leiſurely up the Haymarket, ſome time in the year 1749, lamenting the fate of the famous Cuzzona, an actreſs who ſome time before had been in high vogue, but was then, as they heard, in a very pitiable ſituation. Let us go and viſit her, ſaid one of them; ſhe lives but over the way. The other conſented; and calling at the door, they were ſhewn up ſtairs, but found the faded beauty dull and ſpiritleſs, unable or unwilling to converſe on any ſubject. How's this, cried one of her conſolers, are you ill? or is it but low ſpirits chains your tongue ſo?—Neither, anſwered ſhe; 'tis hunger, I ſuppoſe; I ate nothing yeſterday, and now 'tis paſt ſix o'clock, and not one penny have I in the world to buy me any food.—Come with us inſtantly to a tavern; we

we will treat you with the beſt roaſt fowls and port wine that London can produce.—But I will have neither my dinner, nor my place of eating it, *preſcribed* to me, replied Cuzzona, in a ſharper tone; elſe I need never have wanted.—Forgive me, cries the friend; do your own way; but ear, in the name of God, and reſtore fainting nature.—She thanked him then, and calling to her a friendly wretch who inhabited the ſame theatre of miſery, gave *him* the guinea with which the viſitor accompanied his laſt words; and run with this money, ſaid ſhe, to ſuch a wine merchant, naming him: he's the only perſon that keeps good tokay by him; 'tis a guinea a bottle, mind you, to the boy—and bid the gentleman you buy it of give you a loaf into the bargain—he won't refuſe.—In half an hour, the lad returned with the tokay. But where, cries Cuzzona, is the loaf I ſpoke for?—The merchant would give me no loaf, replies her meſſenger; he drove me from the door, and aſked me if I took him for a baker.—Blockhead, exclaimed ſhe, why I muſt have bread to my wine, you know, and I have not a penny to purchaſe any. Go *beg* me a loaf directly.—The fellow returns once more, with a loaf in his hand, and a halfpenny, telling them the gentleman threw him three halfpence, and laughed at his impudence.—She gave her Mercury the halfpenny, broke the bread into a waſh-hand baſin that ſtood near, poured the tokay over it, and devoured the whole with eagerneſs. This was, indeed, a heroine in profuſion. Some active well-wiſhers procured her a benefit after this: ſhe gained about 350l. 'tis ſaid, and laid out two hundred of the money inſtantly in a *ſhell cap!*'

OF perſons who avow to be free-thinkers or infidels, it has been frequently obſerved, that they become ſo, from hearing one ſide of the queſtion only, and not candidly and patiently enquiring into the evidence which the friends of Chriſtianity adduce in its favour. Yet in other ſubjects, of the deepeſt and moſt abſtruſe nature, they may make the greateſt proficiency. This was the caſe of the celebrated Dr. Halley, to whom ſir Iſaac Newton, on ſome occaſion that called for it, made the following pointed anſwer: 'Dr. Halley, I am always glad to hear you, when you ſpeak about aſtronomy, or other parts of mathematics, becauſe that is a ſubject *which you have ſtudied, and well underſtand*; but you ſhould not talk of Chriſtianity, for you have *not* ſtudied it: I *have*, and know you know nothing of the matter.'

DURING the times of the religious wars in France, René of Champagne, lord of Pechereul, invited to his caſtle, under the maſk of hoſpitality, all thoſe whom he ſuſpected to have a propenſity to the new opinions, and cauſed them to be drowned in a fiſh-pond which he had at the gate of the caſtle. This he called, making his gueſts drink out of his great cup. Who would imagine that Charles the ninth had the curioſity to ſee a caſtle ſo famous for theſe atrocious cruelties? Thither came that Charles the ninth: he ſaw this pond in which ſuch numbers of his faithful ſubjects had periſhed. 'How many,' ſaid he, laughing, to the vile René, 'have you made drink out of your great cup?'—'I have not troubled my memory with thoſe wretches,' anſwered the other.—Here let it be recollected, that during the maſſacre of St. Bartholomew at Paris, this inhuman Charles the ninth was at one of the windows of the Louvre, whence he amuſed himſelf with ſhooting at the poor fugitives, as they were endeavouring to eſcape by ſwimming acroſs the Seine.



Siebenbergen, or Seven Mountains, near Unkelstein.

PARTICULARS *of a Voyage on the Rhine, from* ANDERNACH *to* BONN: *With a Perſpective View of* Sebenbergen, *or the* Seven Mountains.

The following is ſelected from Dr. Cogan's Rhine, *in two Volumes* 8*vo. of the Entertainment to be expected from which our Readers have already had a very intereſting Specimen in our Magazine for March, Page* 202. *Beſide the Plate annexed, theſe entertaining Volumes are embelliſhed with twenty-three other Views in Aqua Tinta, and a Map of the Rhine from Ments to Cologne.*

VARIOUS, and even oppoſite, are the methods of acquiring renown. Neuweid values itſelf upon its being the moſt modern city upon the Rhine, and Andernach, becauſe it is one of the moſt ancient. The mouldering ruins of their churches and monaſteries, are exhibited by the inhabitants with a ſatisfaction equal to that of an antiquarian, who points at the raſt upon a coin as an incontelible mark of its great antiquity. Andernach was a flouriſhing city in the year 1120; but when, and by whom it was built, I am not able to inform you: it was formerly a city of the empire; it now belongs to the elector of Cologne. Although it is moſt advantageouſly ſituated for commerce, yet ancient prejudices and attachment to ancient cuſtoms, keep the inhabitants indolent and poor. It ſeems that the tomb of the emperor Valentine, whoſe remains were depoſited in one of their parochial churches, and of a child that called Barbaroſſa his father, inſpire them with more pride than the moſt magnificent buildings could produce, which commerce might erect.

Julius Cæſar paſſed over the Rhine at this place, when he conducted his victorious arms againſt the Suabians, and it was here that Druſus erected one of thoſe fifty caſtles which were placed on the borders of the Rhine, in the days of Auguſtus.

It is a pity that the inhabitants are deſtitute of the ſpirit of commerce. Such riches of nature either ſurround or float to them! wines, grain, mineral waters, timber, mill-ſtones, and ſalt, are obviouſly diſpoſed to give them the preference, and merely ſolicit to be tranſported by them to other regions.

Andernach is the place where ſmaller floats of timber, conveyed from the foreſts adjacent to the Rhine, the Neckar, the Main, Moſelle, &c. are aſſembled, to be formed into greater floats: ſome of theſe are immenſely large. I am aſſured that they are not leſs than from ſeven to eight hundred feet in length; from one hundred to one hundred and fifty in breadth, and from five to ſeven feet in thickneſs, or depth: they draw about four feet of water. We were not ſo fortunate as to meet with any of theſe on our journey: it muſt have been a very amuſing ſpectacle. The larger maſſes of timber convey the idea of a floating village. From ſixty to eighty wooden tenements are built upon them for the accommodation of about five hundred perſons, who are either employed to navigate this ſtupendous maſs, or to adminiſter to the neceſſities of the immediate navigators. The ſuperintendant, and inferior officers, have very convenient apartments, and ſome approach to elegance. Slaughter-houſes, ſtalls for cattle, magazines for proviſions, make alſo a conſpicuous figure among the more humble buildings. Where the current is rapid, and in a favourable direction, they commit themſelves entirely to it. At other times, ſeveral hundred men are engaged in rowing. Each of the larger floats is alſo furniſhed with about thirty anchors of various ſizes, by which they direct the courſe of the timber, and prevent it from ſtriking againſt the ſhore, particularly at the ſeveral turns and windings of the river: about twelve or fourteen boats,

laden with theſe anchors and the requiſite cordage, are attached to this maſs, to be in readineſs as occaſion may require. Many of theſe floats are deſtined for Holland: ten or twelve of them annually arrive at the city of Dort; ſometimes they are many weeks, and even months, upon their paſſage, and, when the water is very low they are obliged to wait for rains to ſwell the river, as ſailors wait for favourable winds; but they generally arrive at Dort in the months of July and Auguſt. Here the wholeſale timber-merchants break them up, and diſpoſe of them to inferior traders. As the men are nouriſhed at the expence of their chief, their wages are but ſmall, and when they are diſmiſſed, each receives a ducat to bear his expences home. The hire of different pilots, German and Dutch, that are acquainted with the channel of the river, amounts to about two thouſand guilders. It is ſaid, that theſe floats furniſh too favourable an opportunity for a contraband trade in Seltzer water and Rheniſh wines, to be neglected. Cavities are formed in different parts of the maſs, that elude the keeneſt inſpection of all the cuſtom-houſe officers, on their paſſage.

Another article, which might be a ſource of conſiderable wealth to the inhabitants of Andernach, is the tuf-ſtone (lapis tophaceus.) This is diffuſed in immenſe quantities over the whole of theſe regions, from the Weiſſenthurm to Bonn, and the country beyond it, and alſo to a conſiderable diſtance north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt of the Rhine.

The tuf-ſtone is uſed for various purpoſes. The harder ſort are ſhaped into mill-ſtones; thoſe which are leſs compact, are uſed for buildings. The tuf-ſtone ground into a fine powder, and mixed with a due proportion of lime, forms a hard and durable cement, which is not only employed in Germany by way of mortar, but for the floors of their houſes. Numberleſs veſſels laden with theſe ſtones, are annually tranſported to Holland to repair their dykes. Baron de Hupſch has written a very philoſophical treatiſe upon the tuf-ſtone that is found in the neighbourhood of Andernach. He conſiders it as a volcanic production, a ſpecies of pumice ſtone or imperfect lava: he deſcribes the different ſorts of it, and aſſiſts the natural philoſopher to arrange it ſyſtematically in this cabinet. The Baron maintains, that many of the *ſarcophagi* of the Romans were formed of this ſtone.

The tuf-ſtone, ſlate, and the baſalt, ſeem principally to compoſe the immenſe maſs of mountains that extend from Andernach to Bonn. The baſalt, you know, is a hard, ponderous, duſky-ſtone, a ſpecies of touch-ſtone, of a regular form and ſmooth ſurface: it has the moſt artificial appearance of any mineral production; it ſeems to have been hewn out by nature's hands, with an unuſual attention to order: the form of the baſalt is different; ſome are priſmatic, others polygon, conſiſting of five, ſix, ſometimes ſeven or eight ſurfaces; generally, one ſurface of the baſalt is convex, or concave, to correſpond with the convexity or concavity of the adjacent ſtones. The Giant's Cauſeway, in Ireland, is an aggregation of baſalt. Mineralogiſts are not agreed concerning the manner in which this production of nature is formed: ſome imagine it to be a calm depoſition, and regular cryſtalization of earthy matter, from its menſtruum; others conſider it as volcanic, as a kind of granite that cools after it has been in fuſion, and cryſtalizes in ſuch regular maſſes. Not to obſerve, that it is difficult to explain why this regularity ſhould take place in the refrigeration of one ſpecies of earth that has been in a ſtate of fuſion more than of any other; or why ſo much regularity ſhould take place at one period, and ſuch total confuſion at another, a late very curious diſcovery ſeems deciſive in favour of the former opinion. Meſſrs. Von Humbold and Von Geuns, in a mineralogical tour they made a-

long

long the Rhine, in the year 1789, have found a baſalt in the fiſſures of the hills between Unkel and Andernach, in which ſome *water* was encloſed. This diſcovery ſeems to be totally ſubverſive of the idea of volcanic heat *.

I have already enabled you to form ſome general idea of the fiſſure between the hills from Bonn to Andernach, when we were advancing upward; and ſince, I have attempted to make you acquainted with ſome of the moſt intereſting ſcenes that preſented themſelves in our courſe down the river, from Mentz to Coblentz, the minutiæ of local deſcription would become both tedious and ſuperfluous. Beauties ſimilar to thoſe deſcribed, preſent themſelves at every inſtant, and yet a gay party of pleaſure will conſidor them as inferior. In the paſſage from Andernach to Bonn, ſombre dignity is moſt prevalent, the ſublime of melancholy hue. The hills are not ſo fertile, but they are more picturesque. The immenſe piles of ſtone, and particularly where the baſalt compoſes the rock, gives to many places the appearance of maſſy walls, or large edifices in ruins, placed on the ſummit, or on the ſides of the mountains; while, in other places, caſtles mouldering into ruins, are ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed from the projections of a barren rock. Where the hills are clothed with vineyards, the idea that the vines are of an inferior quality, impairs their beauty in the eyes of one returning from the Rhingau. The towns and villages alſo have ſcarcely any thing to boaſt of, excepting their romantic ſituations; they ſeem to be oppreſſed, or forſaken through poverty. In ſome particular parts, however, nature looks gay, and exerts her utmoſt to recompence the toils of the peaſant; and thoſe places where there is a commerce in ſlate, or tuf, appear neat, ſprightly, and happy. I might, therefore, from theſe many conſiderations, excuſe myſelf from giving you any further detail, and ſpring forward to Bonn with one ſtroke of my pen; but I cannot in conſcience paſs by thoſe friends that have afforded me ſo much pleaſure, with total neglect: I muſt point out a few of them, by way of ſpecimen of the many others that would not diſgrace the pencil of an artiſt, and I ſhall leave you to contemplate the reſt at your leiſure, by tracing them upon the map of our route.

The firſt objects I ſhall notice, which, indeed, are as deſerving of notice as any in this paſſage, are the caſtle and village of Hamerſtein, on the right ſide of the river, about two miles diſtant from Andernach. The caſtle is placed upon the ſummit of a rotund and voluminous mountain that boldly projects toward the ſtream, ſomewhat ſimilar to Rhynfels: it has, however, a more placid and rural appearance, and from the choice it has made, it ſeems more diſpoſed to protect than aſſail. The remains of this caſtle are not ſufficient to give us proper ideas of its former grandeur or ſtrength. The village, which preſents us with manifeſt indications of poverty, is the ſurvivor of a fortified city: the village and caſtle were once in the poſſeſſion of count Otho, the cruel; they were taken from him by the emperor Henry the ſecond, in the year 1020: the city walls were razed to the ground, but ſo much of the caſtle remained as to afford a ſhelter for the perſecuted Henry the fourth, in the year 1105, where he took refuge from his oppreſſors.

Oppoſite the Hamerſtein, is the caſtle of Reinock, with its village; theſe, with the territories annexed, became, in the year 1654, the property of the Zinzendorf family, a deſcendant of which has diſtinguiſhed

* Mr. Humbold has given an account of this Journey, in a publication, entitled, 'Minerologiſche Beobachtungen ueber einige Baſalte,' &c. i. e. Minerological Obſervations concerning ſome Baſalt, found on the borders of the Rhine. Bruniw. 1790.

himſelf, by becoming the patron of the Hernhutters. Breyſig and Honningen, yielding a Bleker which rivals the products of more ſouthern vineyards, are not to be paſſed by in total ſilence. Argenfels, with its village, ſituated upon the gentle declivity of a mountain, and commanding an extenſive proſpect, were once celebrated for their beauty, and in the days of count Leyen, elector of Treves—to which electorate the diſtrict is ſubject, the ſpot was adorned with gardens, caſcades, and pleaſant groves; but time and misfortunes, thoſe terrible enemies to beauty, have deſtroyed all their charms.

About half paſt three in the afternoon, our boat ſtopt at Lintz, on the eaſtern borders of the Rhine. Lintz is a ſmall city, in the juriſdiction of the elector of Cologne; and, being the firſt town in the diſtrict, claims, as uſual, the right of tollage. We went on ſhore, ordered a dinner at the beſt inn we could find, and reconnoitred the town, while it was preparing. This city is very ancient, and very poor, and it by no means correſponds with the flattering appearance it makes from the water. In ſhort, it has nothing pleaſing but its ſituation: this is by the ſide of a lofty mountain, tufted with trees. Here river and hills obviouſly ſeek an expanſion: the one forms itſelf into a kind of lake, and the others preſent their inclined ſurfaces to cultivation. We are told by antiquarians, that Lintz was formerly a village, but that it was changed into a city, and ſurrounded with walls by archbiſhop Henry Virnenbourg, in the year 1330; and, that archbiſhop Engelberg, in the year 1562, built a caſtle, both to ſecure his right of tollage, and to curb the turbulent ſpirit of the inhabitants of Andernach, who, in times of civil commotions, were at perpetual variance with thoſe of Lintz. Theſe commotions continued for a ſeries of years, and inſpired ſuch mutual hatred, that neither youth nor beauty could ſubdue it. Intermarriages were unknown among the different parties for ages, and it is but lately that the torch of Hymen ſucceeds to the fire-brands of Bellona.

At a ſmall diſtance from Lintz, the mountain of Erpel rears its head in a more perpendicular attitude than any of its neighbours. This is a mountain of baſalt, and its fantaſtic attempts to imitate pillars and organ-pipes, and the walls of ruined caſtles, afforded us much amuſement as we paſſed by it. This mountain, notwithſtanding a moſt unpromiſing appearance, is favourable to the growth of the vine: it refuſes *ſail*, but it imparts a friendly heat. The vines are planted in baſkets filled with earth, and are placed in the fiſſures of the hill that enjoy a ſouthern aſpect: here they receive the genial warmth, and flouriſh in great perfection.

Paſſing by Rheinmagen, ſeveral ſmall villages, and ſome decayed monaſteries, let me conduct you to Unkel, where you may ſtop a moment to contemplate the rock Unkelſtein, that riſes majeſtically from the bed of the river.

At a ſmall diſtance from Unkelſtein, a moſt beautiful landſcape preſented itſelf to our view. The Rhine was again ſpread into a lake. Several villages on the right and left, with their little farms and their vineyards, their orchards and their foreſts, appeared more than uſually contented and happy. The ſtream divides into three branches, encircling two fertile iſlands contiguous to each other. The proſpect is terminated by the majeſtic mountains of Sebenbergen, that imperiouſly command the Rhine to bend his courſe in another direction.

Although theſe mighty hills unite to form a whole, yet each of them has its characteriſtic and diſtinct appellation: Drakenfels, Wolkenborg, Rolandſekke, Löwenberg, Nonnenſtromberg, Hoke Ochſbey, and Hemmerick, alternately demand our attention and reſpect. The one, Drakenfels, riſes perpendicularly from the ſide of the river, decked with the mantle

mantle of majeſty on the one ſide, while the other defies the inclemencies of winter. Some are more remote, as if they ſought retirement, notwithſtanding their greatneſs: ſome that are detruncated, leave the imagination to deviſe what they were in their priſtine ſtate. They were all places of defence in rude times, and the hiſtory of their conflicts was, for a ſeries of ages, connected with that of the German empire. Several, by their monaſteries, profeſſed a reverence for religion; but it was at a period, when the mild dictates of Chriſtianity, unable to ſubdue the ferocity of barbarous times, were accommodated to the manners, and were made to conſecrate every motive of ambition, and every act of violence.

Notwithſtanding the tremendous appearance of theſe mountains, the ſcene was rendered placid by the mildneſs of the evening, and the calmneſs of the river. Its ſurface was ſmooth as the mirror of Venus! The adjacent ſhores, with all their diverſity of objects;—the floating veſſels;—the azure ſky, with a few fleecy clouds of fantaſtic form, were faithfully reflected in the fully poſſeſſion of their reſpective ſhapes and colours. Here the gentle nymphs of Diana might have bathed, bluſhing with modeſty, and exulting at the perfection of their make! Nor would Narciſſus have diſcovered the ſmalleſt wrinkle upon his brow, to check his fatal paſſion! We all aſſembled before the door of our cabin, to contemplate theſe ſerene beauties of nature; and our fair ſongſtreſs, with her conſort, favoured us with the laſt duetto of plaintive melody, ſo conſonant with our ſituation and our feelings!

THE THEATRE.

ON Wedneſday, July 2, the proprietors of Drury-lane theatre gave a benefit to the fund for the relief of the widows and orphans of the gallant men who fell in the ſervice of their country, in the great naval victory on the firſt of June. The play, on this occaſion, was The Country Girl, in which Mrs. Jordan performed. The after-piece purpoſely written for this occaſion was then brought forward, under the title of The GLORIOUS FIRST of JUNE. The dramatic part of it was furniſhed by Mr. Cobb, with ſome heightening touches by Mr. Sheridan, to whom indeed the major part of the ſecond act is attributed. The ſongs were written by the duke of Leeds, lord Mulgrave, Mr. Richardſon, and Mrs. Robinſon. The muſic was partly ſome old favourite tunes, and partly ſome new airs by Storace. The following is the dramatis perſonæ:

Commodore Chace, Mr. Palmer; Endleſs, Mr. Suett; Tom Oakum, Mr. Banniſter; Robin, Mr. Barrymore; Ben, Mr. Kelly; William, Mr. C. Kemble; Mizen, Mr. Sedgwick; Buſy, Mr. Benſon; Grandfather, Mr. Maddox; Dick, Mr. Hollingſworth; Sailor, maſter Walſh: Margaretta, Signora Storace; Suſan, miſs de Camp; Cicely, miſs Leak; Grandmother, Mrs. Booth.

The plot is in ſome degree a continuation of 'No Song No Supper,' and is nearly as follows: a venerable ruſtic and his wife having loſt a ſon in the ſervice of his country, a brother tar, William, who knew the worth of the deceaſed, conſiders them as his parents, and works for their ſupport; but while his induſtry is thus amiably exerciſed, a preſs-gang diſcover his retreat, and ſeize upon him. The younger part of the family implore the kindneſs of the gang, and beſeech them to releaſe William, upon whom their ſubſiſtence depends. The leader of the gang declares it is impoſſible for him to violate his duty ſo far, but gives them all the money he poſſeſſes to mitigate their grief. William, feeling a glow of patriotiſm, enters as a volunteer, and departs with the gang. After the departure of William, Endleſs, the lawyer, who is the ſteward of commodore Chace, turns the poor couple out of their cottage, which belongs to the commodore. In due time, William returns, laden with wealth and honour, and, with unabated generoſity, finds out the venerable pair, to divide with them the profits of his ſucceſs. The commodore hearing of the heroiſm and benevolence of William, and the worth of the aged pair, determines to take them under

under his protection, turns away the ſteward, and gives a fête in honour of the glorious ſucceſs of lord How.

The firſt act of this piece concluded with a naval action, which was a very ſtriking ſpectacle. The ſecond act, which terminated the piece, finiſhed with a grand naval fête in the garden of the commodore. A tent appeared with the portrait of lord Howe in front, decorated with variegated lamps, part of which formed his name. Among the amuſements of this fête was the dancing of Hilligſberg and D'Egville, which was highly graceful and intereſting.

Giornovichi gave a concerto by way of overture to this piece, in which he introduced Hearts of Oak, the air of Lullaby, and Rule Britannia, which he played moſt exquiſitely.

The following ſongs were received with the loudeſt applauſe.

SONG—Mr. BANNISTER.

By the Duke of LEEDS.

O'ER the vaſt ſurface of the deep,
Britain ſhall ſtill her empire keep;
Her Heav'n-deſcended charter, long
The fav'rite theme of Glory's ſong,
Shall ſtill proclaim the bleſt decree,
That 'Britons ever ſhall be free.'

Tho' hoſtile bands in fierce array,
Dare to diſpute her ſov'reign ſway;
Tho' ſavage Fury nurs'd in gore,
Boaſt to deſpoil her ſilver ſhore,
Heav'n ſtill ſupports its bleſt decree,
That 'Britons ever ſhall be free.'

'Twas thus with Howe, illuſtrious name!
Still adding to a life of fame,
Thro' Gallia's proud Armada broke,
And Albion's wrath in thunder ſpoke;
While Vict'ry ſanction'd the decree,
That 'Britons ever ſhall be free.'

Hail, happy Britain, favour'd iſle!
Where Freedom, Arts, and Commerce ſmile!
Long may thy George in glory prove,
The tranſports of a nation's love!
Long reign to guard the bleſt decree,
That 'Britons ever ſhall be free.'

SONG—Mr. SEDGWICK.

By Lord MULGRAVE.

OUR line was form'd, the French lay to,
One ſigh I gave to Poll on ſhore;
Too cold I thought our laſt adieu—
Our parting kiſſes ſeem'd too few,
If we ſhould meet no more,
But love, avaſt! my heart is Oak,
How's daring ſignal floats on high;
I ſee through roaring cannons' ſmoke—
Their awful line ſubdu'd and broke,
They ſtrike! they ſink! they fly!

CHORUS.

Now, danger paſt, we'll drink and joke—
Sing, 'Rule Britannia; Hearts of Oak!'
And toaſt before each martial tune—
'Howe, and the glorious firſt of June!'

My limb ſtruck off, let ſoothing art
The chance of war to Poll explain:
Proud of the loſs, I felt no ſmart,
But as it wrings my Polly's heart
With ſympathetic pain.
Yet ſhe will think, with love ſo tried,
Each ſcar a beauty in my face,
And as I ſtrut with martial pride,
On timber-toe by Polly's ſide,
Will call my limp a grace.

CHORUS.

At dangers paſt we'll laugh, &c.

Farewell to every ſea delight,
The cruize with eager watchful days;
The ſkilful chace by glim'ring night,
The well work'd ſhip, the gallant fight,
The lov'd Commander's praiſe;
Yet Polly's love and conſtancy,
With prattling babes more joy ſhall bring,
Proud when my boys ſhall firſt at ſea
Follow great Howe to Victory!
And ſerve our noble King.

CHORUS.

Then, danger paſt, we'll drink, &c.

The Play was preceded by the following Prologue written by Mr. Richardſon, the Author of the Fugitive, and ſpoken by Mr. Kemble.

OF all the Virtues which enamour'd Fame,
Connects for ever with a Briton's name,
None ſounds more ſweetly from her trump than thee,
Thou firſt, beſt excellence, Humanity!
Say, ſhall a light, which, from its beaming ſphere,
Diſpels the miſt of ſad Misfortune's tear,
Pierces the worſt abodes where Miſ'ries haunt,
And cheers the languid eye of drooping Want,
Shall it to-night with feebler luſtre ſhine,
When Juſtice joins her rites, at Pity's ſhrine?

No!

No!—ev'ry eye, in generous drops bedew'd,
Shall own that Bounty here is Gratitude.
Ye hapleſs Orphans, doom'd no more to ſhare
The fond protection of a Father's care!
Ye widow'd Mourners, doom'd no more to know
The ſhelt'ring kindneſs which the Brave beſtow!
Your ſacred griefs you do not bear alone,
In Britiſh hearts your ſorrows are their own.
Ye gallant ſpirits, who to Heav'n are fled,
Now rank'd, now honour'd, with the glorious Dead!
If of your former being aught ſurvive,
And mem'ry holds her dear prerogative,
How will your heighten'd natures joy to ſee
Old England ſafe—Old England ſafe and free!
Sav'd by that valour which, diſmiſs'd from earth,
Claims from above the meed of patriot worth!
Theſe the grac'd ornaments that deck your bier,
The brave man's ſigh, and gentle Beauty's tear:
Glory itſelf at ſuch a ſhrine may bow,
And what is Glory, but a name for Howe!
Pity's ſweet records ſtill ſhall bear his name,
Exalting Conqueſt into nobler Fame:
Touch'd by her hand, the Victor's wreaths aſſume
A freſher verdure, and a richer bloom.
As when the Sun, impetuous, pours his ray,
And dazzles Nature with redundant day,
If on ſome lonely ſpot his beams he throws,
Where, dreſs'd in ſweets, retires the baſhful Roſe,
We feel his ſoften'd beauty in the flower,
And love his mildneſs, while we own his power.
Divided Eulogy this night imparts
To Britiſh ſpirit, and to Britiſh hearts;
Thoſe who aſſert their Sovereign country's cauſe,
Thoſe who crown valour with its beſt applauſe,
Alike in cheriſh'd memory ſhall live,
They who have won the laurel—You who give!

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE,

Continued from Vol. XCIV, Page 467.

ON Wedneſday, May 7, Robeſpierre made the long promiſed report upon the decadory feſtivals. After having obſerved that the victories of the republic were noiſed throughout every quarter of the univerſe; that there was an entire revolution in the phyſical order, which could not fail to effect a ſimilar revolution in the orders moral and political; that one half of the globe had already felt this change, which the other half would ſoon feel; and that the French nation had anticipated the reſt of the world by 2000 years, inſomuch that it might be conſidered as conſiſting of a new ſpecies of men; he proceeded to launch forth in the praiſe of republican morality and a democratical government, repreſenting all other governments, and every other deſcription of morality, as deteſtable. He juſtified all the terrible meaſures that had brought about the preſent regimen, and all thoſe by which it was accompanied.

The plan of the decree was now read, and is as follows:

I. The French nation acknowledges the exiſtence of a Supreme Being, and the immortality of the ſoul.

II. It acknowledges, that the worſhip worthy of the Supreme Being, conſiſts in the practice of the duties of man.

III. It ranks among theſe duties the deteſtation of treachery and tyranny, the puniſhment of traitors and tyrants, the ſuccouring of the wretched, reſpect for the weak, the defence of the oppreſſed, the doing to others all poſſible good, and the ſhunning of injuſtice toward any one.

IV. Feſtivals ſhall be inſtituted to recal man to a recollection of the divinity, and to the dignity of his exiſtence.

V. Theſe feſtivals ſhall be named either after the glorious events of the French revolution, thoſe of the virtues the deareſt and moſt uſeful to man, or the moſt conſpicuous benefits of nature.

VI. The French republic will annually celebrate the feſtivals of the 14th of July 1789, the 10th of Auguſt 1792, the 21ſt of January 1793, and the 31ſt of May 1793.

VII. On the days of the Decades, the following feſtivals ſhall be celebrated:—To the Supreme Being; to Nature; to the Human Race; to the French Nation; to the Benefactors of Humanity; to the Martyrs of Liberty; to Liberty and Equality;

Equality; to the Republic; to the Liberty of the World; to the Love of the Country; to the Punishment of Tyrants and Traitors; to Truth; to Justice; to Glory and Immortality; to Friendship; to Frugality; to Courage; to Sincerity; to Heroism; to Disinterestedness; to Stoicism; to Love; to Conjugal Love; to Paternal Love; to Maternal Tenderness; to Filial Piety; to Infancy; to Youth; to Virility; to Old Age; to Misfortune; to Agriculture; to Industry; to Our Ancestors; to Posterity; and to Happiness.

VIII. The freedom of religious worship is maintained.

IX. Every aristocratical and other assembly, subversive of public order, is suppressed.

X. In case of disturbances, the motive or occasion of which may consist in any particular mode of worship, those who shall excite these troubles by fanatical discourses, or counter-revolutionary insinuations, and those who shall cause them by outrages as unprovoked as unjust, shall be equally punished, by all the rigour of the law.

XI. On the 8th of June, a festival shall be celebrated, in honour of the Supreme Being.

Couthon now made the following observations:—'Providence and the convention have been outraged by the infamous miscreants, who, to drive every good citizen to despair, have proclaimed materialism, and denied the existence of the Supreme Being. On these men, corruptors and corrupted, justice has been done: but the convention shall do more, it ought to strike at the root of their abominable principles; and this will be effected by the decree now enacted. But the convention, having been outraged and calumniated, and that every where, the report of this decree ought not only to be printed in the usual style, and sent to the armies, but should be transmitted to all the constituted bodies and popular societies. It ought, besides, to be posted up in the streets, and displayed in every conspicuous spot, to the end that the true profession of faith to the French nation may be fully known. I demand, lastly, that, insomuch as the morality of the national representation has been calumniated in foreign countries, the report of Robespierre, and the plan of the decree presented to you, shall be translated into all languages, and dispersed throughout the universe.'

On Sunday, May 25, the convention was informed, that a person named Ameral, had discharged a pistol at Collot d'Herbois, a member of the committee of safety, as he was walking the streets. The assassin was instantly apprehended.

The next day, Barrere reported from the committee of public safety, a similar project to assassinate Robespierre.

'On the 4th of Prairial' (May 30) he exclaimed, 'about nine at night, a female, twenty years of age, went to the house of the citizen Duplai, where Robespierre lives, and asked to speak to him. Duplai informing her that he was not at home, she made use of these words, 'It is very astonishing that, as he is a public functionary, he is not at home. Possessing such a situation as he does, he ought to be always ready to see those who have business with him.' The manner in which she spoke these words, having infused some suspicion into Duplai's mind, he stopped and carried her before the committee of general safety. On the way thither she said, 'that during the old government, the king was accessible at all times, and that she would spill every drop of blood in her body to restore the ancient government, and to have a king again upon the throne. Being introduced to the members of the committee of general safety, she said, that her name was Aimee Cecile Regnault; that she was twenty years old, and was the daughter of a stationer, who lived in the street, called La Lanterne, in the section of La Cite.'—This woman, after an examination, was committed to prison.

Barrere now presented a report, in which he warned the people from being misled by the hypocritical propositions of those who wished to surround the members of the committees of public and general safety with guards.—'Such persons,' he exclaimed, 'are neither the friends of the republic, nor the firm supporters of the national representation; our guards are the affection of the French people, our courage is derived from the consciousness of loving sincerely the republic of France.' Barrere here entered into a long narration of the conduct of Great Britain toward France and the neutral powers. He scrupled not to affirm that Great Britain directed the poignards of those who wished to assassinate France, and he concluded by presenting the form of an address, accompanied with a decree, enjoining the soldiers of the republic to spare no British or Hanoverian soldier.—The proposed address and decree were agreed to.

Robespierre

Robeſpierre now appeared in the tribune, and the applauſes beſtowed upon him were ſo loud and reiterated, that a long time elapſed before he could deliver his ſentiments. He then expreſſed his ardent attachment to that republican form of government which France had adopted. When he and his colleagues, he ſaid, declared war againſt faction and vice, they were not inſenſible that the dagger of the aſſaſſin would be lifted againſt them. Such conſiderations, however, did not deter them from doing their duty, and he was happy to find that their labours had aſſiſted in eſtabliſhing the dominion of morality and juſtice, and in rendering their power immutable and eternal.—The convention decreed that the ſpeech of Robeſpierre ſhould be printed, ſent to the armies and municipalities, and tranſlated into all languages; and the ſections of Paris marched in a maſs through the convention, expreſſing their indignation at the plots againſt Collot d'Herbois and Robeſpierre.

On Thurſday, June 5, Robeſpierre was choſen preſident of the convention, by a majority of 216 to 4.

The ſame day, Barrere, in the name of the committee of public ſafety, obſerved that the national repreſentation is the only body which is not diſtinguiſhed by any external marks. The repreſentatives ſerving with the armies are known, he ſaid, by means of a particular dreſs, and he propoſed to decree, 'that on the 20th Prairial, (June 8) the members of the national convention ſhall aſſiſt at the feaſt of the Eternal with a bunch of national coloured feathers in their hats, and a three-coloured ſaſh about their bodies.' This decree was carried, notwithſtanding the obſervations of Le Cointre of Verſailles, who objected to it.

Barrere afterward announced, that he ſhould ſoon deliver in a report relative to a national republican dreſs.

The following decree was enacted on the motion of Gregoire: 'The committee of inſtruction ſhall deliver in a report relative to the conſtruction of a new grammar, and a new vocabulary of the French language; they ſhall give their opinion on the beſt manner of facilitating the ſtudy of, and giving that character to it, which belongs to the language of liberty.'

[To be continued.]

UNION *of the* KINGDOM *of* CORSICA *with the* CROWN *of* GREAT BRITAIN.

Whitehall, July 22.

THE diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received by the right hon. Henry Dundas, from the right hon. ſir Gilbert Elliot, bart. dated Corté, the 21ſt of June 1794.

Sir,

I have the honour to acquaint you, that the union of Corſica to the crown of Great Britain is finally and formally concluded; and it is with the moſt ſincere ſatisfaction that I find myſelf enabled to aſſure you, that no national act was ever ſanctioned by a more unanimous proceeding on the part of thoſe who were authoriſed to do it; or by a more univerſal approbation, amounting, I may ſay, to enthuſiaſm, on the part of the people.

I have already had the honour of tranſmitting to you a copy of the letter addreſſed by his excellency my lord Hood and myſelf to his excellency general Paoli, dated the 21ſt of April. I have the honour to incloſe to-day a copy of the circular letter, addreſſed by general Paoli to his countrymen, referring to that which he had received from us, an Italian tranſlation of which was annexed.

Letters of convocation were ſoon after iſſued for the aſſembly of the General Conſult to be held at Corté, on Sunday, the 8th of June, and were ſo framed as to procure the moſt general repreſentation known in this iſland, every community, which is the ſmalleſt territorial diviſion, having ſent its repreſentative, and the ſtate of property being ſuch, that although none but landholders were electors, every man, almoſt without exception, has voted.

The letters of convocation ſet forth the occaſion of their being called together; and the minutes of election in every community expreſſed the general nature of the meaſure to which the deputies were authoriſed to conſent, ſpecifying diſtinctly the union of Corſica with Great Britain, and the tender of the crown to his majeſty.

I have the honour to incloſe copies of theſe proceedings.

The deputies met at Corté in ſufficient numbers to conſtitute the aſſembly, on Tueſday, the 10th of June. Some days were employed in verifying their powers, and determining controverted elections; after which they choſe general Paoli as their preſident, and Mr. Pozzodi Barga, and Mr. Muſelli their ſecretaries.

On Saturday, the 14th inſtant, general Paoli opened the aſſembly by an excellent and eloquent ſpeech, ſtating conciſely the principal events which had occurred, and the principal meaſures adopted by himſelf ſince the ſeparation of the laſt general conſult in May 1793, the occaſion of their preſent convocation, and the leading points on which their deliberations ſhould turn.

The aſſembly voted unanimouſly their thanks to general Paoli, and a full and entire approbation of all he had done, by virtue of the powers formerly veſted in him by the general conſult of 1793.

They then, 1ſt, declared unanimouſly the ſeparation of Corſica from France:

And 2dly, with the ſame unanimity, and with the ſtrongeſt demonſtrations of univerſal ſatisfaction and joy, voted the union of Corſica to the crown of Great Britain.

A committee was then appointed to prepare the articles of union, and to conſider the proper mode of tendering the crown to his majeſty.

It was declared that all who came ſhould have voices; and, in fact, ſeveral perſons of character and talents, who were not even members of the aſſembly, were admitted to the deliberations, and took a ſhare in the diſcuſſions of the committee.

The articles underwent in the committee a very full, free and intelligent diſcuſſion; ſuch as would have done honour to any aſſembly of public men in any country, and ſuch as ſtamped the reſult with the ſanction of a deliberate and informed, as well as a free and independent aſſent.

The report was voted with unanimity in the committee.

It was preſented to the aſſembly on Thurſday the 17th, and on that and the following day was opened, and moſt ably as well as fully expounded to them by Mr. Pozzo de Bargo. It was adopted with unanimity, and with univerſal applauſe; and two copies of the act of union were ſigned by every member of the conſult.

On Thurſday, the 19th of June, I received a deputation from the aſſembly, preſenting to me a copy of the act of union, and inviting me to return with them, that the crown might be tendered to his majeſty by the aſſembly itſelf, in the moſt ſolemn and authentic form.

I accompanied the deputation; and, in preſence of the aſſembly, received from the preſident, his excellency general Paoli, in the name of the people, the tender of the crown and ſovereignty of Corſica to his majeſty.

His excellency's addreſs to me is contained in the minutes.

After addreſſing the aſſembly in a manner which appeared to me ſuitable to the occaſion, I pronounced, in his majeſty's name, the acceptation of the crown, according to the articles contained in the act of union.

I then took, in his majeſty's name, the oath preſcribed, 'to maintain the liberties of Corſica, according to the Conſtitution and the Laws.'

The preſident then took and adminiſtered to the aſſembly the oath of allegiance and fidelity; after which I ſigned and ſealed the acceptation annexed to both copies of the act of union, one of which I have now the honour to tranſmit.

The day following (yeſterday) Te Deum was ſung in the cathedral, accompanied by the diſcharge of artillery; and prayers were offered up for his majeſty, by the name of George the third, king of Great Britain and Corſica. In the evening, the town was illuminated, and the people demonſtrated their loyalty and joy by every means in their power.

The aſſembly has voted, this day, an addreſs to his majeſty, expreſſive of their gratitude, loyalty and attachment; and have deputed four reſpectable gentlemen to preſent it to his majeſty in London.

I cannot conclude this diſpatch without offering my very humble congratulations on the fortunate termination of this important and intereſting affair, at once advantageous, as I truſt, to the contracting parties, honourable to his majeſty, and gratifying in every view, to his royal feelings, as well as thoſe of his Britiſh ſubjects.

The true foundation and baſis of this tranſaction has reſted on the confidence inſpired by his majeſty's princely virtues, and the exalted reputation enjoyed throughout the world by the Britiſh nation for every honourable and generous quality. The people of Corſica have, on one hand, done homage to thoſe virtues, by confiding and tendering, even ſolicitouſly, the ſovereignty of their country to his majeſty; they have, on the other hand, heightened the value of that confidence, by evincing that it comes from men who have rejected, with horror, the poiſonous and counterfeit liberty of France, without being ignorant or careleſs of a well-ordered and conſtitutional freedom.

His majeſty has acquired a crown; thoſe

those who beſtow it have acquired liberty. The Britiſh nation has extended its political and commercial ſphere by the acceſſion of Corſica: Corſica has added new ſecurities to her ancient poſſeſſions, and has opened freſh fields of proſperity and wealth, by her liberal incorporation with a vaſt and powerful empire.

This diſpatch will be delivered to you by Mr. Petriconi, a young gentleman of this country, who has ſerved with diſtinction throughout the war, under the orders of general Paoli, and particularly in the ſieges of Baſtia and St. Florenzo.

I beg leave to refer to him for any particulars which I may have omitted, and to recommend him to the honour of your attention during his reſidence in England.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) GILBERT ELLIOT.

TRANSLATION.

General PAOLI to his Countrymen.

Furiani, May 1, 1794.

Moſt dearly beloved Countrymen,

The unabated confidence with which you have honoured me, and the ſolicitude I have ever had to promote your intereſts and to enſure your liberty, preſcribe to me the obligation of ſtating to you the preſent ſituation of public affairs.

You remember how many cruel and treacherous arrangements were made by the three commiſſioners of the French convention who were ſent over to our iſland; and in what manner they attempted to concentrate the powers of government in a ſmall number of their ſatellites, deſtined to be the inſtruments of thoſe violences and cruelties, which were to be exerciſed againſt all well-meaning perſons, and againſt the nation at large.

The unjuſt decree which ordered my arreſt, and my tranſfer to the bar of the aſſembly, was the firſt attempt directed by them againſt your liberty. You unanimouſly declared yourſelves, and humbly remonſtrated againſt an act deſigned to facilitate the execution of your enemy's plots: finally, you, in a general aſſembly, declared your indignation at this act of injuſtice; and you adopted, at that moment, ſuch reſolutions as were conſiſtent with your dignity and with the public welfare.

I accepted, as a diſtinguiſhing proof of your confidence, the commiſſion you were pleaſed to confer upon me, for providing, in thoſe critical circumſtances, for the maintenance of your ſafety and liberty; anxious that you ſhould not be expoſed to any danger, unleſs indignation and neceſſity commanded you to reſiſt, I tried every means which prudence and moderation ſuggeſted to me at that time; but neither your juſt reclamations, nor my innocence, were ſufficient to recall to ſentiments of rectitude and humanity a violent and ſanguinary faction, irritated by the noble reſiſtance you had made, and reſolved to accompliſh your deſtruction; for which purpoſe the ſubverſion of the government was ordered, and the members of it proſcribed, conjointly with many other zealous patriots: the nation was declared in a ſtate of rebellion; orders were given to reduce it by force of arms, and to treat it with the bloody rigour of revolutionary laws.

Rouſed by theſe cauſes; by the endleſs ſucceſſion of deſtruction and ruin, which characteriſes the conduct of thoſe perſons who exerciſe the powers of government in France, and by the deſtruction of all religion and of every form of worſhip, enforced and proclaimed among the people with unexampled impiety, every Corſican felt the neceſſity of ſeparating from the French, and of guarding againſt the poiſonous influence of their errors.

The acts of hoſtility committed by the French, and thoſe Corſican traitors who had taken refuge in the garriſons of Calvi, St. Florenzo and Baſtia, compelled us to repel them by force of arms. I have ſeen, with infinite ſatisfaction, during the courſe of a whole year, that your ancient bravery and attachment to your country were not in the leaſt diminiſhed. In various encounters the enemy have been defeated, although numerous, and ſupported by artillery: you have treated the priſoners, taken in the heat of battle, with generoſity; while the enemy have, in cold blood, maſſacred our priſoners, who were ſo unfortunate as to fall into their hands: in all theſe agitations we have kept ourſelves united, and exempt from the horrors of licentiouſneſs and anarchy; a happy preſage of your future fate, and an irrefragable proof that you are deſerving of true liberty, and that you will know how to preſerve it unſullied by licentiouſneſs and diſſentions.

In ſuch a ſtate of things, a becoming diffidence made me, nevertheleſs, apprehend that the enemy would increaſe in force, and attempt to carry into execution the deſtructive plans they had formed againſt you: under theſe circumſtances I felt the neceſſity of foreign aſſiſtance; and,

in conformity to your general wiſhes, and to the public opinion and univerſal expectation, I had recourſe to the king, and to the generous and powerful nation, which had, on other occaſions, protected the remains of our liberty; a meaſure dictated by the public ſafety, and which I took only when every conciliatory offer had been obſtinately rejected, and every hope of obtaining moderation or juſtice from the French convention was extinct.

His Britannic majeſty's arms have made their appearance in your ſupport: his ſhips and troops are employed with you to drive from our country the common enemy, and the blood of Britons and Corſicans is conjointly ſhed for the liberty of this iſland. Our enterprize has already been crowned with happy events, and draws near to a fortunate completion.

This pleaſing aſpect of affairs has determined me to turn my thoughts to the moſt efficacious means of eſtabliſhing a permanent freedom, and of ſecuring our iſland from the various events which, till this moment, have kept us in agitation.

The protection of the king of Great Britain, and a political union with the Britiſh nation, of which the proſperity and power, uninterrupted for ages, are to the univerſe proofs of the excellency of its government, have appeared to me to accord with the happineſs and ſafety of Corſica. The univerſal opinion on this head, evinced by the unreſerved inclination you have ſhewn, and ſtrengthened by your gratitude for benefits received, appears fortunately to concur with mine. I have therefore made the proper overtures to his majeſty the king of Great Britain, with a view to eſtabliſh this deſireable union.

With a ſatisfaction never to be eraſed from my mind, I now behold our wiſhes anticipated, and our hopes realized: the memorial which has been tranſmitted to me by their excellencies, the admiral commanding the fleet, and the miniſter plenipotentiary of his majeſty, affords us the opportunity of eſtabliſhing this union in the manner beſt adapted to the benefit of both nations, and to the honour of his majeſty. I cannot better make known to you their excellencies ſentiments, than by a faithful tranſlation of their memorial.

The nature of the preſent addreſs does not permit me to enlarge upon the benefits of this union, which tends to conciliate the moſt extenſive political and civil liberty with perſonal ſecurity. You are convinced of theſe truths, and will regulate your conduct accordingly: I nevertheleſs avail myſelf of this opportunity to declare to you, that, in taking the Engliſh conſtitution for your model, you will proceed upon the moſt ſolid principles that philoſophy, policy, and experience, have ever been known to combine for the happineſs of a great people, reſerving to yourſelves the power of adapting them to your own peculiar ſituation, cuſtoms, and religion, without being expoſed, hereafter, to the venality of a traitor, or to the ambition of a powerful uſurper.

A matter of ſuch importance ought nevertheleſs to be diſcuſſed, and agreed to by you, in a general aſſembly, at which I entreat you to aſſiſt by your deputies, on Sunday, the 8th of the enſuing month of June, in the city of Corté. The proviſional government will then ſuggeſt to you the form and mode of the elections.

I beſeech you to impreſs yourſelves with the great importance of the affairs on which you have to determine; and, on that account, let it be your care to ſelect perſons of zeal and acknowledged probity, and, as much as may be in your power, reputable heads of families, intereſted in good government and the proſperity of the country. Let moderation and propriety of conduct prevail in your aſſemblies, that no perſon among you may have the mortification to remark any diſorder in the moſt happy moment which has occurred in the courſe of our revolutions, and in paſſing the moſt important act of civil ſociety. In the mean time, let every man ſuggeſt whatever he may conceive moſt uſeful to the country, in order to communicate his opinion to the nation, legally repreſented and aſſembled.

Corſica is now juſtly regarded by foreign powers as a free nation; her reſolutions will, I hope, be ſuitable to her ſituation, and dictated by wiſdom and by a love for the public good.

With reſpect to myſelf, my dearly beloved countrymen, after having devoted every moment of my life to your happineſs, I ſhall eſteem myſelf the happieſt of mankind, if, through the means I have derived from your confidence, I can obtain, for our country, the opportunity of forming a free and laſting government, and of preſerving to Corſica, its name, its unity, and its independence, while the names of the heroes who have ſpilt their blood in its ſupport and defence, will be, for future generations, objects of noble emulation and grateful remembrance.

(Signed) PASQUALE DE PAOLI.

Copy

Copy of a Letter from their Excellencies Lord Hood and Sir Gilbert Elliot, Bart. to General Paoli.

Victory, Baſtia Roads, April 21, 1794.

Sir,

Your excellency having been pleaſed to repreſent to us, on behalf of the Corſican nation, that the intolerable and perfidious tyranny of the French convention having driven that brave people to take up arms in their own defence, they were determined to ſhake off altogether the unjuſt dominion of France, and to aſſert the right of a free and independent nation; but being ſenſible that their own efforts might be inſufficient to contend with France, or other powerful nations, who might undertake hoſtile attempts againſt them, and confiding implicitly in the magnanimity and princely virtues of his Britannic majeſty, and in the bravery and generoſity of his people, they were deſirous of forming a perpetual union with the Britiſh nation, under the mild and equitable government of his majeſty and his ſucceſſors, for the better protection, and for the perpetual ſecurity and preſervation of their independence and liberties: and your excellency having, on theſe conſiderations, ſolicited, in the name of the people of Corſica, his majeſty's preſent aſſiſtance, and his royal protection in time to come, we took the ſame into our moſt ſerious conſideration; and knowing his majeſty's gracious and affectionate diſpoſition toward the Corſican nation, and his readineſs to contribute in every way, which is conſiſtent with juſtice and the intereſts of his ſubjects, to the happineſs of that brave people; and being inveſted with ſufficient powers for that purpoſe, we determined to comply with your requeſt, and have accordingly furniſhed the aid of his majeſty's naval and military forces in the Mediterranean, toward expelling the common enemy from the iſland of Corſica.

We have ſince been honoured with more ſpecial powers and authority to concert with your excellency and the people of Corſica, and finally to conclude, on his majeſty's behalf, the particular form and mode of relation which ſhall take place between the two nations.

It is with the moſt lively ſatisfaction we acquaint your excellency, that we have it in command from his majeſty to aſſent, on his part, to ſuch a ſyſtem as will cement the union of our two nations under a common ſovereign, and, at the ſame time, ſecure for ever the independence of Corſica, and the preſervation of her ancient conſtitution, laws and religion.

With whatever ſatisfaction his majeſty has graciouſly aſſented to propoſitions, which promiſe, perhaps, for the firſt time, not only to afford to this iſland the preſent bleſſings of tranquillity and peace, and a ſudden increaſe of proſperity and wealth, but alſo to eſtabliſh its national independence and happineſs on a ſecure and laſting foundation; his majeſty is, however, determined to conclude nothing without the general and free conſent of the people of Corſica.

We therefore requeſt your excellency to take the proper ſteps for ſubmitting theſe important matters to their judgment; and as the ſmall number of the enemy, at preſent inveſted by the Britiſh and Corſican troops, and which muſt ſoon either be deſtroyed or yield to ſuperior force, can no longer give any uneaſineſs to this country, but the freedom and deliverance of Corſica is in effect accompliſhed, we beg leave to ſubmit to your excellency, whether it may not be deſirable to take the earlieſt meaſures for terminating theſe intereſting concerns, and for adding a formal ſanction to that union, which is already eſtabliſhed in the hearts of all our countrymen.

We have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) HOOD.
GILBERT ELLIOT.

His Excellency General Paoli, &c.

TRANSLATION.

The General Council charged with the Proviſional Government of Corſica, to the Municipal Officers, Curates of Pariſhes, and their Fellow Countrymen.

Beloved Countrymen,

The God of armies, protector of the moſt juſt cauſe, has favoured your efforts.

The audacious army, whoſe fury and violence was excited by the impious faction which propoſed to itſelf to aboliſh all order, cuſtoms and religion in Europe, will ſhortly be removed from our territories.

To ſecure a more ſpeedy ſucceſs, providence has given you the ſupport of a powerful nation, accuſtomed to reſpect laws, and a legitimate power, which has generouſly aſſiſted you to extricate yourſelves from the tyrannical anarchy of the preſent republic of France.

That nation, and its king, offer you the advantages of a laſting union and conſtant protection.

The happy influence of our glorious country-

countryman, general de Paoli, added to the reſources of his genius, and excited by the dangers of his own country, have accelerated this happy event; in ſhort, brave Corſicans, We are free.

By our conſtancy, firmneſs, and courage, we have acquired the enjoyment of the advantages we inherit from our anceſtors, Liberty and Religion.

However, it would be but little to have regained this noble ſucceſſion, if our efforts and prudence were unable to ſecure it for ever.

To inſure the ſucceſs of thoſe efforts, and to direct our prudence, a perfect union is neceſſary; our general reſolutions muſt be formed with a view to our preſent ſituation and our future expectations.

The Corſicans muſt therefore preſcribe the form of adminiſtration and government they chuſe to adopt, enunciate, or approve of; and the principles on which it is to be eſtabliſhed, or on which their legiſlation is to be fixed.

Finally, beloved countrymen, the moſt important object is, a ſpeedy union of the people, and the laſt act of the proviſional adminiſtration you adopted, ordains us to ſupport the paternal and patriotic intentions of general de Paoli.

In this invitation we can give you but a faint idea of the important functions you will confide to your repreſentatives in the next aſſembly; however, you no doubt know the indiſpenſible neceſſity of adopting meaſures for the maintenance of internal tranquillity and of a form of government adapted to our cuſtoms, powers, and ſituation, and finally to the various relations that will hereafter be eſtabliſhed between Corſicans; the Engliſh nation and their king feel, even more than others, the neceſſity that ſuch deputies ſhould be appointed among our countrymen as ſhall have give evident proofs of their patriotiſm, and of their deſire to act with a zeal adequate to the nature and importance of their miſſion, for eſtabliſhing and ſecuring by the new order of things, not only for the preſent, but in future, public felicity. This laſt conſideration, in caſe you are ſenſible of it, will, we are in hopes, determine you to prefer one of the moſt reſpectable heads of family in each of your reſpective communities, as a repreſentative on ſuch ſolemn and important occaſions in council.

In this union, which will form the moſt memorable criſis of our annals, the objects muſt be treated with that form and order due to the dignity of the repreſentatives of a free people.

The ancient aſſemblies of our nation, at the time of the glorious government of its deſerving general, were only compoſed of one deputy from each community. Finding it neceſſary to avoid the inconvenience of repeated elections, we have thought it expedient in this circumſtance to invite you to adopt this ancient cuſtom, chiefly on reflecting, that as harveſt is approaching, the abſence of chiefs from their families, added to the expences of the journey, and time ſpent in the election, would be of prejudice to their affairs and domeſtic intereſts; the people will therefore eſtabliſh conſtitutionally the number of its repreſentatives for the ſucceſſive reunions.

The zealous and good citizens will, however, be enabled to lay before the council their knowledge of all important ſubjects, which will be taken into conſideration and diſcuſſed accordingly, but they will have no part in its deliberations.

The general council therefore invites all communities of Corſica to aſſemble on Sunday the 1ſt of June, each to appoint, according to the form of election hereunto annexed, its repreſentative at the general council, and the general aſſembly of the clergy to take place on the Sunday following, the 8th of June.

The municipal officers and pariſhes of the reſpective communities, are charged with the publication and diſtribution of both general Paoli's circular and this.

Corté, May 9, 1794.

For the general council of the government.

Signed, [A great number of names.]

Form of Election.

In the year 1794, on the firſt of June in the pariſh church of the community of uſual place for the general meeting of the clergy.

We N. N. N.* the inhabitants of the ſaid community, exceeding the age of twenty-five, being legally united by virtue of the circular letter wrote on the 1ſt of May, by his excellency general de Paoli, and the one wrote by the proviſional government on the 9th of the ſame month, duly publiſhed, to appoint a deputy, who is to be a repreſentative at the general

* Here all names of ſuch perſons as ſhall be preſent at the meeting will be affixed.

council

council of Corſica, to be held on the 8th curt. we have choſen as our preſident Mr. N. the moſt proper perſon among thoſe aſſembled, who know how to write, and who has appointed as his ſecretary Mr. N.

In ſucceſſion to the ſaid appointment, the majority of votes is given in favour of Mr. N , father of a family, who has been duly elected by the preſent aſſembly, and proclaimed deputy; and unto him we give the power of concerting and treating with the other repreſentatives of the nation, on the tranſactions that will in future take place between Corſica and his majeſty the king of Great Britain and the Engliſh nation: as likewiſe on ſubjects of public utility contained in the aforeſaid circular letter.

And the preſent verbal proceſs has been regiſtered, and depoſited in the chancery of this community, and a copy given to ſerve him the ſaid Mr. N. deputy, as a full power and certificate.

N. PRESIDENT.
N. SECRETARY.

Firm of the General Council,
COTTONI, Vice-Preſident.
MUSELLI, Secretary.

TRANSLATION.

We, the repreſentatives of the Corſican nation, free and independent, lawfully aſſembled in a general meeting, poſſeſſed of a ſpecial authority to form the preſent conſtitutional act, have unanimouſly decreed, under the auſpices of the Supreme Being, the following articles.

CHAPTER I.

Of the Nature of the Conſtitution, and of the Conſtituted Powers.

Art. I. The conſtitution of Corſica is monarchical, according to the following fundamental laws.

II. The legiſlative power is veſted in the king and in the repreſentatives of the people, lawfully elected and convened.

III. The legiſlature, compoſed of the king and of the repreſentatives of the people, is denominated the parliament; the aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the people is named the houſe of parliament; and the repreſentatives are ſtyled members of the parliament.

CHAPTER II.

Of the Mode of Elections, the Number of Members, and the Functions of Parliament.

Art. I. The territory ſhall be divided into Pieves, (diſtricts) each of which ſhall ſend two members to parliament. The towns on the coaſt, of which the population ſhall amount to 3,000 ſouls and upward, have the right of ſending two members each to parliament; the biſhops, who diſcharge there duties of their ſee in Corſica, and the recogniſed as ſuch by the Corſican nation, ſhall be members of parliament.

II. The members of parliament ſhall be elected by all the Corſican citizens, of twenty five years of age, who ſhall have been reſident at leaſt one year in the Pieve, or in the town, and who are poſſeſſors of land.

III. No perſon ſhall be elected a member of parliament, unleſs he poſſeſſes at leaſt 6,000 livres in land in the Pieve which he is to repreſent, and pays taxes in proportion to this poſſeſſion, and unleſs born of a Corſican father, and bonâ fide an inhabitant, having kept houſe for five years in the ſaid Pieve, and until he has arrived at the age of twenty-five.

IV. Lodgers, except thoſe who are inmates for life, perſons employed in collecting the revenue, the receivers and collectors of taxes, thoſe who have penſions, or who are in the ſervice of a foreign power, and prieſts, cannot be members of the houſe of parliament.

V. The form of election ſhall be determined by the laws.

VI. If a member of the parliament dies, or becomes incapable, according to law, of being a member of parliament, another member ſhall be elected by his Pieve, within fifteen days, by the king's authority.

VII. The houſe of parliament has the right of enacting all the acts which are intended to have force of law.

VIII. The decrees of the houſe of parliament ſhall not have force of law, unleſs they receive the king's ſanction.

IX. Any decree that has not paſſed the houſe of parliament, and received the king's ſanction, ſhall not be looked upon as law, nor carried into execution as ſuch.

X. No impoſition, tax, or public contribution, ſhall be laid without the conſent of parliament, or without being eſpecially granted by it.

XI. Parliament has the right of impeachment, in the name of the nation, of every agent of government, guilty of prevarication, before the extraordinary tribunal.

XII. The caſes of prevarication ſhall be determined by the law.

CHAP.

Chapter III.

Of the Duration and Convocation of Parliament.

Art. I. The duration of one parliament ſhall be two years.

II. The king may diſſolve the parliament.

III. In caſe of a diſſolution of parliament, the king ſhall convene another within forty days

IV. Thoſe perſons who were members of the diſſolved parliament, may be elected members of the ſucceeding one.

V. If the parliament expires without being diſſolved; another ſhall be called, by the king's authority, within forty days.

VI. The king may prorogue the parliament.

VII. The parliament cannot be convoked or aſſembled, but by the king's command.

VIII. The interval between the convening of the houſe and its prorogation, or, if it be not prorogued, until its diſſolution, or, if it be not diſſolved, until its expiration, is to be called the ſeſſion of parliament.

IX. The vice-roy, or, in caſe of illneſs, the commiſſioners nominated by him for that purpoſe, ſhall open the ſeſſions in perſon, and declare the reaſons for convoking the parliament.

X. The parliament may adjourn itſelf and re-aſſemble, during the ſame ſeſſion.

XI. The houſe ſhall decide upon the contested election of its members.

XII. The members of parliament ſhall not be ſubject to arreſt or impriſonment for debt during the continuance of their repreſentation.

Chapter IV.

On the Mode of Deliberation, Freedom of Debate, and internal Regulations of Parliament.

Art. I. After the opening of parliament by the vice-roy, or by his commiſſioners, as is herein before-mentioned, the oldeſt member ſhall take the chair; and the members preſent having elected a proviſional ſecretary among themſelves, ſhall proceed to the choice of a preſident, and of one or more ſecretaries. The ſecretaries ſhall not be choſen from among the members; and may be diſmiſſed by a vote of parliament.

II. The parliament aſſembled, in all the caſes before-mentioned, has the power of debate, and of paſſing bills, whenever above one half of its members are preſent.

III. Every member elected and not appearing, ſhall have notice, from the preſident of the houſe, to repair to his poſt, within fifteen days.

IV. In caſe of non-appearance, or of not ſending a lawful excuſe ſatisfactory to the houſe, ſuch member ſhall be condemned to a fine of 200 livres.

V. Parliament may grant leave of abſence, or permit the abſence of ſuch members who ſolicit it, provided more than one half of its members remain preſent.

VI. Every propoſition made in parliament ſhall be decided by the majority of the members preſent; the preſident, in caſe of an equal diviſion, ſhall give the caſting vote.

VII. The forms and procedures of enacting laws, and of determining other matters in the houſe, which may not be fixed by the preſent conſtitution, ſhall be regulated by the houſe itſelf.

VIII. The king's ſanction, or the refuſal of it, ſhall be announced in perſon by the king's repreſentative in the houſe of parliament, or by a ſpecial commiſſion in caſe of ſickneſs.

IX. The form of the ſanction ſhall be, *the King approves*; that of refuſal, *the King will examine*: the bills ſanctioned by the king, are named, Acts of Parliament.

X. No member of parliament ſhall be called to account, or puniſhed by the king's ſervants, for the opinions manifeſted, or the doctrines profeſſed in the houſe, or by any other authority whatever, except by that of the houſe itſelf.

XI. The preſident of the parliament has the right of calling to order any of its members, when he may think proper. The houſe may cenſure, arreſt and impriſon any of its own members, during the ſeſſion.

Chapter V.

Upon the Exerciſe of the Executive Power.

Art. I. The king ſhall have his immediate repreſentative in Corſica, with the title of Vice-roy.

II. The vice-roy ſhall have the power of giving his ſanction or refuſal to the decrees of parliament.

III. He ſhall moreover have the power to perform, in the king's name, all the acts of government which are within the limits of the royal authority:—There ſhall be a board council and a ſecretary of ſtate, nominated

nominated by the king, and mention ſhall be made in the vice-roy's orders, that he has taken the opinion of the ſaid board of council; and theſe orders ſhall be counterſigned by the ſecretary.

IV. The nation has the right of petitioning, as well the vice-roy as the houſe of parliament: the conſtituted and acknowledged corps of the law may petition in a body, the other corps in their individual capacity only; and a petition ſhall never be preſented by more than twenty perſons, however numerous may be the ſignatures to it.

V. The houſe of parliament may addreſs the king to recall his vice-roy; in ſuch caſe the houſe ſhall addreſs his majeſty in his privy council aſſembled: the vice-roy ſhall be obliged to tranſmit the addreſs to the king, upon the requiſition of the houſe, within the term of fifteen days after ſuch requiſition, and the houſe may itſelf tranſmit it to the king, even through the channel of a deputation; but in any caſe the houſe is bound to preſent to the vice-roy, fifteen days previous to the departure of the addreſs, a copy of the ſame, and of the papers which are to accompany it.

VI. The king has the excluſive direction of all military arrangements, and is to provide for the internal and external ſecurity of the country.

VII. The king declares war and makes peace: he ſhall not be authoriſed, however, in any event, nor on any account whatſoever, to give up, alienate, or in any manner prejudice, the unity and indiviſibility of Corſica and its dependencies.

VIII. The king ſhall appoint to all the offices of government.

IX. The ordinary employments of juſtice, and of the adminiſtration of the public money, ſhall be conferred upon natives of Corſica, or perſons naturalized Corſicans, in virtue of the laws.

CHAPTER VI.

Of Judicial Proceedings, and of the Diviſion of the Tribunals.

Art. I. Juſtice ſhall be executed in the king's name, and the orders carried into execution by officers appointed by him, in conformity to the laws.

II. There ſhall be a ſupreme tribunal, compoſed of five judges and the king's advocate, and this ſhall be ſtationary in Corté.

III. There ſhall be a preſident and a king's advocate attached to every other new juriſdiction.

IV. The functions of the ſaid reſpective tribunals, their adminiſtration, and the emoluments, ſhall be determined by law.

V. There ſhall be in every Pieve a Podeſta, (Magiſtrate.)

VI. In every community there ſhall be a municipality, named by the people, and its functions ſhall be regulated by the laws.

VII. Crimes, which deſerve corporal or ignominious puniſhments, ſhall be tried by the judges and a jury.

VIII. The king has the power of granting pardon, in conformity to the ſame regulations under which he exerciſes this prerogative in England.

IX. All civil, criminal, commercial cauſes, and thoſe of every other kind whatſoever, ſhall be terminated in Corſica, in the firſt and laſt inſtance.

CHAPTER VII.

Of the Extraordinary Tribunal.

Art. I. There ſhall be an extraordinary tribunal, compoſed of five judges, appointed by the king, and commiſſioned to judge upon any impeachment from the houſe of parliament, or upon all charges made, on the part of the king, of prevarication, or other treaſonable tranſactions.

II. The nature of the ſaid crimes, and the form of trial, ſhall be determined upon by a ſpecial law, but a jury ſhall be allowed in every caſe of this ſort.

III. The members of the tribunal ſhall not aſſemble, but in caſes of impeachment by the houſe of parliament, or by the king; and, immediately after judgment given, they ſhall be obliged to ſeparate.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of Perſonal Liberty, and of the Liberty of the Preſs.

Art. I. No perſon ſhall be deprived of his liberty and property but by ſentence of the tribunals acknowledged by the laws, and in the caſes and according to the forms preſcribed.

II. Whoever ſhall be arreſted or placed in confinement, ſhall be conducted, within the term of twenty-four hours, before the competent tribunal, in order that the cauſe of his detention may be adjudged according to law.

III. In caſe of the arreſt being declared vexatious, the perſon arreſted will have a right of claiming damages and intereſt before the competent tribunals.

IV. The liberty of the preſs is decreed, but the abuſe of it is to be amenable to the laws.

V. Every Corſican ſhall have the power freely to depart from his country, and to return to it with his property, conforming himſelf to the regulations and ordonnances of general police, obſerved in ſuch caſes.

Chapter IX.

Of the Corſican Flag and Navigation.

Art. I. The ſtandard ſhall bear a Moor's Head, quartered with the King's Arms, according to the form which ſhall be preſcribed by his majeſty.

II. The king ſhall afford the ſame protection to the trade and navigation of the Corſicans as to the trade and navigation of his other ſubjects.

III. The Corſican nation, deeply penetrated with ſentiments of gratitude toward the king of Great Britain and the Engliſh nation, for the munificence and protection which it has always enjoyed, and which is now, in a more ſpecial manner, ſecured to it by the preſent conſtitutional act,

Declares, That it will conſider every attempt which in war or in peace ſhall be made to promote the glory of his majeſty, and the intereſts of the empire of Great Britain in general, as its own; and the parliament of Corſica will always manifeſt its readineſs and deference to adopt all regulations, conſiſtent with its preſent conſtitution, which ſhall be enacted by his majeſty in his parliament of Great Britain, for the extenſion and advantage of the external commerce of the empire, and of its dependencies.

Chapter X.

Of Religion.

Art. I. The catholic, apoſtolic, Roman religion, in all its evangelical purity, ſhall be the only national religion in Corſica.

II. The houſe of parliament is authoriſed to determine on the number of pariſhes, to ſettle the ſalaries of the prieſts, and to take meaſures for enſuring the diſcharge of epiſcopal functions, in concert with the holy ſee.

III. All other modes of worſhip are tolerated.

Chapter XI.

Of the Crown and its Succeſſion.

The ſovereign king of Corſica, is his majeſty, George the third, king of Great Britain, and his ſucceſſors, according to the order of ſucceſſion to the throne of Great Britain.

Chapter XII.

Of the Acceptance of the Crown and of the Conſtitution of Corſica.

Art. I. The preſent act ſhall be preſented to his majeſty, the king of Great Britain, through his excellency ſir Gilbert Elliot, his commiſſary plenipotentiary, and ſpecially authoriſed for this purpoſe.

II. In the act of acceptance his majeſty, and his plenipotentiary in his name, ſhall ſwear 'to maintain the Liberty of the Corſican Nation, according to the Conſtitution and the Laws;' and the ſame oath ſhall be adminiſtered to his ſucceſſors, upon every ſucceſſion to the throne.

III. The members of the aſſembly ſhall immediately take the following oath, which ſhall be adminiſtered by his excellency ſir Gilbert Elliot; 'I ſwear for myſelf, and in the Name of the Corſican Nation, which I repreſent, that I acknowledge for my Sovereign and King, his Majeſty George the third, the King of Great Britain; to yield him faithful Obedience, according to the conſtitution and Laws of Corſica, and to defend the ſaid Conſtitution and Laws.'

IV. Every Corſican ſhall, in his reſpective community, take the preceding oath.'

Done, and unanimouſly decreed, and after three readings, on three ſucceeding days, in the general aſſembly of the Corſican nation, in Corté, this day, 19th of June 1794, and individually ſigned in the aſſembly of all the members of which it is compoſed.

[Signed by above four hundred names.]

Continuation of the Seſſions of the 19th of June 1794.

All the members of the aſſembly having individually ſigned the conſtitutional act, it was propoſed to preſent it to his excellency ſir Gilbert Elliot, his Britannic majeſty's commiſſary plenipotentiary, in order that it might be accepted by him in his ſaid majeſty's name. The aſſembly having adopted this propoſition, decreed, that the ſaid propoſition ſhall be made by a deputation of twelve members, who were choſen and commiſſioned for this purpoſe.

After which the deputation, having executed the commiſſion aſſigned to them, re-entered the hall, and with them the ſaid ſir Gilbert Elliot: the members of the aſſembly ſtood up, during which he approached the preſident, and pronounced the following acceptation:

I, the underſigned baronet, member of the parliament of Great Britain, member of the privy-council, and commiſſary plenipotentiary

nipotentiary of his Britannic majesty, having full power, and being specially authorised for this purpose, do accept, in the name of his majesty George the third, king of Great Britain, the crown and sovereignty of Corsica, according to the constitution and the fundamental laws contained in the act of a general assembly held at Corté, and definitively settled this same day, the 19th of June, and as such offered to his majesty; and, in his majesty's name, I swear to maintain the liberty of the Corsican nation, according to the constitution and to the laws.

The present acceptation and oath is by us signed and sealed.

(L. S.) GILBERT ELLIOT.

The said acceptation and oath being read, the said sir Gilbert Elliot proposed to the president and to the assembly the constitutional oath; and this was taken by them in the following words:

'I swear for myself, and in the name of the Corsican nation, which I represent, to acknowledge for my Sovereign and King, his Majesty George the third, the King of Great Britain, to yield him faithful Obedience according to the Constitution and the Laws of Corsica, and to maintain the said Constitution and Laws.'

The constitutional act being entirely completed and finished, the president adjourned the session, and signed the above, as did also the secretaries, the year, month and day above-mentioned.

(Signed)

PARQUALE DE PAOLI, President.
CARL ANDREA POZZO DI BARGO, Sec.
GIO. ANDREA MUSELLI, Secretary.

TRANSLATION.

Speech made in the General Assembly of Corsica, on the Acceptation of the Crown and Constitution of that Island, by his Excellency Sir Gilbert Elliot.

Gentlemen,

In availing myself, for the first time, in the midst of the Corsican nation, of the privilege of calling you brothers and fellow-citizens, a reflection, which will naturally occur to every one, excites in me the most heartfelt satisfaction; independent of the reciprocal political advantages which we may derive from so close a connection, I see, on the present occasion, every thing that can render it more precious and more estimable by the sentiments of confidence and of affection, the first and pure principles of our union, which they will for ever continue to cement and consolidate.

This remarkable truth, which it is impossible to overlook, cannot be mentioned without a strong emotion of sensibility and joy. Our two nations have, for a long period, been distinguished by a reciprocal and remarkable esteem. Without anticipating the happy end to which this instinctive partiality, this sympathetic attraction, may some day lead us, we have given to each other instances of confidence on every occasion, yet no relations have hitherto subsisted between us, except those of reciprocal and voluntary good offices. Our minds have been prepared by providence for the fate which awaited us, and the divine goodness, intending our union, has ordained that it should be anticipated and brought about (if I may so express myself) by a similarity of character, and by a conformity of views and principle, and, above all, by a pleasing exchange of friendly services.

This sacred compact, which I received from your hands, is not a cold and interested agreement between two parties who meet by accident, and form a contract founded on the impulse of the moment, or on a selfish and temporary policy.—No; the event of this happy day is only the completion of wishes we had previously formed; to-day our hands are joined, but our hearts have long been united, and our motto should be *Amici & non di ventura.*

However seducing this prospect of our happiness may appear, I trust (and it is important for us to know it, as we assuredly do) that it does not depend on sentiment alone; but that it rests on the solid basis of the true interests and permanent felicity of the two nations.

I will not mention to you the interests of Great Britain upon this occasion; not that they are of little consequence, but being of a nature purely political, the subject would be too cold, too dry, for this important day. Besides, it is not necessary on this occasion to appreciate them in detail. I shall confine myself to this remark, that every possible advantage, which Great Britain could have in view from her union with Corsica, is essentially attached to your political and absolute independence of every European power, and that these advantages are not only compatible with your interests, but cannot for the most part exist, and still less flourish, but in proportion to your prosperity.

On your part, what is necessary to render you a happy people? I will tell you in two words—Liberty at home, and security abroad.

Your liberty will not be exposed to any

encroachments from a monarch, who, by his own experience and the example of his anceſtors for ſeveral generations, is perſuaded that the liberty and the proſperity of his people is the only foundation of the power, the glory, and the ſplendour of the throne. A king who has ever governed according to the laws, and whoſe ſceptre is at once ſtrengthened by the privileges and embelliſhed by the happineſs of his ſubjects: here I might expatiate on the auguſt virtues of that monarch whom you have choſen for your own; but they are known to all his ſubjects: you will therefore become acquainted with them by a happy and certain experience, and this teſtimony will be far more faithful than my weak voice.

It would not, however, be right that your liberty ſhould depend ſolely on the perſonal virtues of the monarch. You have therefore been careful to enſure it by the wiſe conſtitution and fundamental laws of our union, which, in my opinion, conſtitute ſo eſſential a part of the act you preſent to me this day, that I could not (without violating the confidence repoſed in me by my ſovereign) agree to a ſyſtem which might have degenerated into tyranny; a condition equally unfavourable to the happineſs of him who exerciſes it, and of thoſe who endure it.

If his majeſty, therefore, accepts the crown which you have agreed to offer him, it is becauſe he is determined to protect, and never to enſlave thoſe from who he receives it; and, above all, becauſe it is given, and not ſeized upon by violence.

For external ſecurity, you wanted nothing but the conſtant and active alliance of a maritime power: this act ensures it to you; and while you enjoy at home peace and tranquillity, which the enemy will no longer be able to interrupt, you will ſhare with us the treaſures of trade, and the ſovereignty of the ſeas.

From this day therefore you are quiet and free. To preſerve theſe bleſſings, you have only to preſerve your ancient virtues, courage, and the ſacred love of your country. Theſe are the native virtues of your ſoil; they will be enriched by thoſe which accompany our union, and which you will derive from our induſtry, from our long experience, (that true ſource of political wiſdom) and from our love of liberty, at once enthuſiaſtic and enlightened. I ſpeak of that liberty which has for its object to maintain your civil rights, and the happineſs of the people; not to ſerve ambition and vice: that liberty, which is inſeparable from religion, order, reſpect for the laws, and a ſacred regard for property, the firſt principles of every human ſociety; that liberty which abhors every kind of deſpotiſm and eſpecially that moſt terrible of all deſpotiſm, which ariſes from the unreſtrained violence of the human paſſions. Such are the virtues which belong both to you and to us; on their happy mixture and influence on each other depends the proſperity of Corſica. Immediate liberty, and a progreſſive and encreaſing proſperity. Such is the text; to which I hope and venture to predict that our behaviour to each other, and our common deſtinies will always prove a faithful and a ſatisfactory illuſtration.

LONDON GAZETTES.

The London Gazette, June 28.

Whitehall, June 28.

A Letter, of which the following is a copy, was this morning received from his royal highneſs the duke of York, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the home department.

Renaix, June 24, 1794.

Sir,

Colonel Craig had ſet out upon his journey to England; but unfortunately upon his arrival at Oudenarde, he found that the enemy had obliged general Clairfait to retire in ſome confuſion to Ghent; and that the communication between that place and Oudenarde, unleſs by a great detour, was entirely cut off. Thinking that it was neceſſary I ſhould have this information as ſoon as poſſible, he returned in the night.

This movement of the enemy, by forcing general Clairfait to retire, and bringing them nearer to the banks of the Scheld, rendered the poſition before Tournay, which, ſince the departure of the prince of Cobourg, had always been hazardous, no longer tenable; and I therefore quitted it this day, leaving only a garriſon in the town, and marched, with all the Britiſh and part of the Heſſian troops, to this place, in order to be in readineſs to ſupport Oudenarde, which was menaced, and actually ſummoned this day.

I am, &c.

FREDERICK.

P. S. En-

P. S. Enclosed I send a copy of the articles of capitulation of the garrison of Ypres.

[Here follow the articles of capitulation, by which it was agreed, that the garrison should march out with the honours of war, as well as all their military attendants, in testimony of the brave defence they had made; to depart by the gate of Menin twenty-four hours after the signing of the capitulation; lay down their arms and colours, after having passed the Glacis; and to be sent prisoners of war to such part of France as shall be assigned to them. The inhabitants of both sexes then in the town, or who had taken refuge therein, the public officers, and all other persons, were to have their honour, their lives, and properties preserved, the French emigrants excepted.]

The London Gazette Extraordinary, June 30.

Whitehall, June 30. By a letter received from the marquis of Hertford, dated Nivelle the 26th instant, it appears, that, after an unsuccessful attack made by the prince of Cobourg, on the whole chain of French posts at Gosselies, Fleurus, &c. the Austrians were obliged to retire with considerable loss, and the enemy remained in possession of the field of battle. The prince of Cobourg was retreating to a strong position near Hal.

An account had just been received at Nivelle, that Charleroy had fallen into the hands of the enemy.

The London Gazette, July 1.

Whitehall, July 1. A letter, of which the following is a copy, has been this morning received from his royal highness the duke of York, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, his majesty's principal secretary of state for the home department.

Renaix, June 28, 1794.

Sir,

Having received intelligence on Tuesday night, that the enemy had moved forward in great force upon general Clairfait's position, and that they had detached a corps to attack Oudenard, I found it absolutely necessary, for the defence of the Scheld, to march immediately to this place, as from hence I could, with greater facility, support that place, and move upon any point at which they might attempt to force a passage.

The enemy obliged general Clairfait to abandon his position at Deynse, and fall back upon Ghent, on Wednesday, where they again attacked him the next day, but were fortunately repulsed.

This retreat of general Clairfait rendered it impossible for general Walmoden to support himself with so small a body of troops as he had under his command at Bruges. He therefore found it necessary to abandon that place on Thursday, and to fall back to Landmarck, and join general Clairfait's right flank.

The consequence of these last movements, though necessary, are exceedingly unpleasant, as all communication with Ostend is cut off.

Yesterday the enemy made another attempt upon Oudenarde, which they cannonaded the whole day, and even carried in the afternoon the Fauxbourg, but were driven out again in the night, and have now retreated to a small distance.

Yesterday evening, I received the disagreeable intelligence of the prince of Cobourg's having failed in his attack upon the French army at Gosselies and Fleurus, as well as of the surrender of Charleroy.

Enclosed I send a translation of the account which I have received from the prince of Cobourg. I am, &c.

FREDERICK.

Report of the action of the 26th of June 1794, near Fleurus.

Marbais, June 26, 1794.

Although there was great reason to suspect that Charleroy was already in the hands of the enemy, yet, as no certain intelligence could possibly be procured, the attack, which had been determined upon for its relief, became necessary, to prevent the fate of so important a place as Charleroy being left to chance.

In consequence, the army marched on the 25th, in five columns, and early in the morning of the 26th, attacked the enemy's entrenched position between Lambusart, Espines, and Gosselies.

The attack, which was executed with great resolution, was every where successful, and the enemy's advanced corps, although protected by strong redoubts, were driven back. In the evening, the left wing arrived at the principal heights on this side the Sambre.

The ground here forms a gentle declivity, which the enemy had fortified by a very extensive line of redoubt, in which they had brought an immense number of cannon. Notwithstanding these obstacles,

the

his own honour. He has done the duty of quarter-master-general during the expedition, and for colonial reasons I gave him the rank of colonel. I have also given to major Spencer the rank of lieutenant-colonel, meaning to appoint him deputy quarter-master-general. He is an officer of great merit, and has distinguished himself on many occasions; but as it belongs not to me to give rank, I hope their merits may be considered by his majesty.

Enclosed are statements of the killed and wounded, and of the stores taken belonging to the several departments, &c.

Having taken this place on his majesty's birth-day, I honoured the fort with the name of George; the port remains as before. I have the honour to be, &c.

JOHN WHYTE, Brig. Gen.
Commanding St. Domingo.

Lieutenant-colonel Lennox is just arrived with eight flank companies from Martinique.

Return of the killed and wounded of the British and Colonial troops, at the attack of Fort Bizotton, June 4, 1794.

One captain, eight rank and file, killed; one captain, two rank and file, wounded.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Captain Wallace, 22d regiment, killed.
Captain Daniel, 41st ditto, wounded.

[The return of ordnance and ordnance stores taken at Port-au-Prince, in the arsenal, and in the different ports and batteries, and forts in the vicinity of the city, contains an account of 131 pieces of ordnance, two of which were 36 pounders; 27, 24 pounders; 17, 18 pounders; 28, eight pounders, &c.—Above 30,000 round shot; 11,000 double-headed shot; 105,800 lb. of powder, beside 140,000 musket cartridges; and a proportionable quantity of ammunition and stores.]

Proclamation of his Excellency Brigadier-General Whyte, commanding his Britannic Majesty's forces in St. Domingo.

The commissioners and their agents, in order to carry into execution those perfidious designs which have proved so fatal to the lives, the laws, the liberty and the happiness of this once flourishing colony, have every where calumniated the British government.

General Whyte, who has the honour to represent his Britannic majesty, assures the inhabitants of Port-au-Prince, and its vicinity, that the object of his majesty and of his government is to restore peace among every class of inhabitants.

Those parts of the colony, which have already placed themselves under his majesty's protection, can bear a faithful testimony that there is nothing oppressive in the behaviour and laws of the English.

A considerable part of the people of St. Domingo has been seduced from its duty; these persons are hereby invited to return to their occupations, to lay down their arms, and to forget every cause of resentment.

The English government demands, and will obtain, by force if necessary, that peaceful obedience which is due to its mild and just laws.

The Mulattoes will find, in the General and the Government, every disposition to favour their interests; they are considered by the English, who are and will continue to be their friends.

The negroes, who have been so long the dupes of the vile artifices of the commissioners, will soon be convinced that the English disdain falsehood and deceit.

Let them, relying with confidence on the generosity of the British people, return to their masters, lay down their arms, and enjoy the advantages of a life devoted to industry; their present sufferings will soon be relieved, and the laws will protect them against cruelty and oppression.

The forces, which are now in this colony to support the happiness of the inhabitants, and the glory of the English nation, are but a part, even a small part, of the army destined for its service; it being his majesty's resolution to punish, in a manner as certain as severe, those who will not accept the offers of this and of the preceding proclamations.

All persons who shall repair to Port au-Prince, and to the English General, within the delay of eight days from the date of this proclamation, except those who have been guilty of murder, or of taking a part in insurrections, will be received and pardoned; but all those who are taken in arms after the above-mentioned period, will be put to death as traitors.

Done at Port-au-Prince, the 8th of June 1794.

(Signed) JOHN WHYTE,
Brigadier-General Commandant.

Admiralty-office, July 16. A letter from rear-admiral Ford to Mr. Stephens, dated in Port-au-Prince road, the 9th of last month, of which the following is an

extract, was received at this office laſt night, by captain Rowley, of his majeſty's ſhip Penelope.

'In my letter of the 22d ult. per Cumberland packet, I acquainted you, for the information of the lords-commiſſioners of the admiralty, that brigadier-general Whyte, with the 22d, 23d, and 41ſt regiments, (flank companies excepted) had arrived at the Mole, with the Irreſiſtible, Belliqueux, and Fly ſloop; and that, notwithſtanding the difficulties we had to ſurmount, (the rainy ſeaſon being ſet in, the ſhips and troops ſickly, &c.) it was the intention of the general and myſelf to proceed immediately againſt Port-au-Prince, and every exertion was uſed accordingly. It was thought expedient for the ſhips of war and tranſports to rendezvous in L'Arcahaye road, on the north ſhore of Port-au-Prince; where they arrived on the 25th, in order to collect and prepare the ſmall craft and boats neceſſary to land the troops, and to get the Colonial troops, both on the ſide of Leogane and L'Arcahaye, in readineſs to co-operate with the army; which being completed by the 30th, the ſquadron ſailed at noon on that day, and I proceeded in the Europa, with the Irreſiſtible, Belliqueux, Sceptre, and Fly-ſloop, with a detachment of the Britiſh and Colonial troops, of the advanced poſt of Bizotton, on the ſouth ſide; while captain Hills, with the Hermione, Iphigenia, Swan, and Marie Antoinette ſchooner, went on, with the tranſports and the grand body of the troops, to Point Saline, where they anchored the ſame evening. The whole force being thus collected, and the operations ready to commence, a flag of truce was ſent, on the following morning, to demand the ſurrender of the place; but, on approaching the harbour, the officer, charged with the diſpatch, was informed that no flag of truce would be admitted, and the letter was, conſequently, returned unopened.

As the general concurred with me in opinion, that the poſſeſſion of Fort Bizotton was an object of the firſt conſideration, the Belliqueux and Sceptre were ordered to attack the ſea front; the Penelope, at the ſame time, to anchor cloſe to the ſhore, to flank a ravine to the eaſtward on the back of the fort, while a party of troops, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Spencer of the 13th regiment, were to be landed juſt out of gun-ſhot to the weſtward, in order to act, on the moment, according to the exigency of ſervice: And at half paſt eleven o'clock, A. M. on the 31ſt inſtant, the ſeabreeze ſetting in, captains Brine and Dacres, the commanders of the two firſt mentioned ſhips, weighed, per ſignal, and placed themſelves with the utmoſt preciſion againſt the fort, and immediately commenced a very briſk and well directed fire againſt it, and the Penelope in the ſame manner upon the Ravine. The Europa and Irreſiſtible alſo weighed and kept under ſail, to throw in a broadſide when opportunity required, as well as to keep off a body of the enemy's horſe, and ſome brigands, who appeared diſpoſed to annoy the landing of the troops. At five o'clock the detachment was wholly diſembarked, under the direction of capt. Affleck, of the Fly ſloop; and, although the fort returned the fire of the ſhips but ſlowly after they were placed, and ſometimes appeared quite ſilenced, yet the colours were ſtill flying, and a ſhot now and then fired till ſix o'clock, P. M. when a moſt tremendous thunder ſtorm and deluge of rain put an end to all firing; and, about half an hour paſt eight o'clock, the fort was ſtormed and carried, by captain Daniel of the 41ſt regiment, with 60 men, who was ſoon after joined by lieutenant-colonel Spencer and his detachment; and in the morning the Britiſh colours were hoiſted.

On the evening of the 2d, a party of 200 Britiſh, under the command of colonel Hampfield, were landed at Point Saline; and early next morning the Hermione and Iphigenia were, under ſail, firing on an advanced poſt of the enemy, named Bernadon, in order to divert their attention from colonel Hampfield's detachment, while he effected a junction with a body of Colonial cavalry commanded by lieutenant-colonel La Pointe, as well as to prepare for the landing of the grand body of the troops, with which the general intended to diſembark, and poſſeſs himſelf of the heights above Fort Robin; and, after ſecuring the advanced poſts of Foſſe and Dimanche, to attack that fort, while the ſhips were to engage the ſea batteries; and lieutenant-colonel Spencer was to make a diverſion from Bizotton, aſſiſted by a body of Colonial cavalry. But the weather proving bad in the evening, the troops on the north ſide could not be diſembarked, though the enemy ſhowed every appearance of fear and confuſion; and during the night I received information, by ſome deſerters from the town to the Europa, that the commiſſaries, with the principal part of their force, had made their eſcape toward Aux Cayes before

they were ſurrounded by our troops; by which means the town and ſhipping were ſaved, as they had fitted ſeveral merchant-ſhips with combuſtibles, moored expreſsly for the purpoſe of ſetting fire to the whole.

As ſoon as the ſea-breeze ſet in on the 4th inſtant, the ſhips of war got under ſail, and hoiſted the Britiſh colours on the ſea batteries, while the general landed at the north part of the town, and lieutenant-general Spencer marched in on the ſouth at the ſame time, and took poſſeſſion of the principal poſts, without much oppoſition or loſs; upon which I ordered a royal ſalute to be fired, in honour of the day, and of the important advantage gained over the enemy: and I have the moſt heartfelt ſatisfaction in aſſuring their lordſhips, that a cordial and diſtinguiſhed zeal prevailed between the army and navy; and that the captains, officers, ſeamen and marines, under my command, conducted themſelves in the manner truly ſpirited, active and commendable, and deſerving the name of True Britons.

Incloſed are the returns of the loſs ſuſtained by his majeſty's ſhips, and of the ſhips found in the harbour upon poſſeſſion being taken."

Return of the loſs ſuſtained by his Majeſty's ſhips in the attack of Port-au-Prince.

Belliqueux. Ten ſeamen and marines, wounded.

Hermione. Five ſeamen, killed; ſix ſeamen, wounded.

[By the return of ſhips and veſſels found in the harbour, it appears that there were twenty-two veſſels of various burden, amounting in the whole to 6820 tons, laden chiefly with ſugar and coffee, and ſome few with cotton and indigo; ſixteen others in baliaſt, to the amount of 5340 tons; and ſeven old veſſels careening in the harbour, making 2440 tons more. Total, 45 veſſels; 14,600 tons.]

The London Gazette, July 19.

Whitehall, July 19. A letter, of which the following is an extract, dated Contyck, July 15, 1794, has been received from his royal highneſs the duke of York, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

On Saturday afternoon, the enemy attacked all the out-poſts occupied by my advanced corps in front of the canal leading from Bruſſels to Antwerp, and, being greatly ſuperior in numbers, drove them into the town of Malines, upon which place they likewiſe fired; but, upon a re-enforcement arriving, under the command of the earl of Moira, the enemy fell back, with ſome loſs.

This morning, however, they renewed the attack, and having ſucceeded in obliging the poſts on the left of Malines to abandon the canal, and to retreat from the Dyke, lieutenant-general Dalwig thought himſelf obliged to fall back to Welhem, where he has taken up a poſition, to cover that paſs of the river. I have detached lord Moira to take poſſeſſion of the village of Duſſel upon his left, and general Wallmoden, with the Hanoverians, is at Lierre.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

JUNE 25.

THE following has been given out, in Public Orders, to the fleet at Spithead:

PUBLIC ORDERS.

Queen Charlotte, at Spithead, June 20.

The commander in chief is directed, purſuant to the king's pleaſure, to make known in the fleet, that his majeſty has deigned to expreſs the higheſt ſatisfaction in the account, reported by the admiral, of the bravery and gallant behaviour of the officers and men ſerving in the fleet, in the actions with the enemy on the 28th and 29th of May, and 1ſt of the preſent month; and is charged, in the manner judged moſt proper, to acquaint all the officers and men (more eſpecially the admirals Graves and ſir Alexander Hood, K. B. the rear admirals Bowyer, Caldwell, Gardner, and Paſley; and ſir Roger Curtis, firſt captain to the commander in chief) with the juſt ſenſe his majeſty entertains of the zeal and courage they have ſo eminently exerted in his ſervice on thoſe occaſions.

The commander in chief has alſo been required by the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and by the honourable the commons of Great Britain, in parliament aſſembled, to convey the thanks of their reſpective houſes to the flag officers already named as above; and to the captains and other officers of the fleet, for their bravery and gallant conduct; with their approval and acknowledgment of the ſervices of the ſea-

many marines, and ſoldiers, ſerving in the ſaid fleet, in the ſeveral actions with the enemy as aforeſaid.

The commander in chief, with the higheſt ſenſe of pleaſure, communicates in this manner, ſuch approval and acknowledgment as above ſtated, to the ſaid officers and ſhips companies; and deſires, in conſequence, that the captains of the different ſhips will ſignify the ſame to their reſpective officers and crews accordingly.

He is, moreover, to make known at this time, that in a court of common council, holden in the chamber of the Guildhall of the city of London, the 18th inſtant; on conſideration (as it is expreſſed) of the very gallant conduct of the ſeamen, &c. who ſerved on board the fleet in the ſaid actions, and in token of the gratitude of the ſaid court of common council, the chamberlain of the city is directed to pay into the hands of Mr. Thomas Tayler, the maſter of Lloyd's coffee-houſe, the ſum of five hundred pounds, for the relief of the wounded warrant officers, petty officers, ſeamen, &c. and alſo the widows and children of thoſe who ſo gloriouſly fell on the days before mentioned, in the ſervice of their king and country.

It is likewiſe to be noticed, that a very conſiderable ſum of money had been previouſly ſubſcribed (and ſtill increaſing in amount) by many reſpectable and generous private gentlemen, making their depoſits with Mr. Tayler, for the like purpoſes; conſonant to the tenour of which, the ſeveral captains of the fleet have been deſired to tranſmit to the ſaid Mr. Tayler, the names of the killed and wounded ſeamen, marines, and ſoldiers, with adequate deſcriptions of the perſons entitled to ſuch relief, with all convenient diſpatch.

JULY 1.

On Thurſday June 26, their majeſties and three of the princeſſes, arrived at Portſmouth, about ten in the morning; the three younger princeſſes having come down the day before. The royal party then proceeded in barges, in the cuſtomary proceſſion, and receiving the cuſtomary honours, to viſit lord Howe's ſhip, the Queen Charlotte, at Spithead. Here his majeſty held a naval levee, and preſented lord Howe with a diamond-hilt ſword, valued at 3000 guineas, and a gold chain (to which a medal is to be ſuſpended) to be worn round the neck. After which the royal party dined with lord Howe, on board the ſhip.

During their majeſty's ſtay at Portſmouth, there were great illuminations, and other rejoicings. At nine in the morning, yeſterday, they embarked on board the Aquilon frigate, landed in the afternoon at Southampton, and immediately ſet off for Windſor.

Before the king left Portſmouth, he ordered one week's pay to the artificers in the dockyard, and one month's to earl Howe's fleet.

JULY 2.

On Sunday afternoon, about four o'clock, the earl of Waldegrave, a youth about ten years of age, was unfortunately drowned as he was bathing in the Thames, near a field called the Brocas, in the pariſh of Eton. His lordſhip was educating at Eton ſchool, and going out with two of his companions, the latter were induced, from the heat of the day, to bathe, but deſired his lordſhip, as the water was deep, and he not an expert ſwimmer, not to venture in. Lord Waldegrave, however, jumped into the river, and was never perceived to riſe, as it is ſuppoſed he got entangled among the weeds. The body was not found till Monday morning, and was taken up cloſe by the place where he ſunk.

JULY 3.

On Monday, a dreadful fire broke out in that part of the town which is called Weſt End in Tiverton, in the county of Devon. The buildings being moſtly thatched, and extremely dry, it ſpread with great rapidity, and was not got under till four o'clock on the morning of Tueſday, deſtroying between 40 and 50 houſes in that quarter. The wind, being rather high, occaſioned the fire to communicate with the houſes in the main ſtreet, ſeveral of which are totally conſumed, and others much damaged.—By this dreadful fire, about 200 houſes are ſuppoſed to be conſumed.

Mr. Adams, late ſecretary to the Conſtitutional Society, has been liberated, upon giving bail.

JULY 11.

This day his majeſty went to the houſe of peers, and put an end to the ſeſſion of parliament by the following moſt gracious ſpeech;

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'The ſtate of public buſineſs enables me now to cloſe this ſeſſion of Parliament; in doing which I have again to acknowledge that aſſiduity, and zeal for the intereſts of my people, of which you had before given me ſo many proofs, and which have been ſo particularly manifeſted in the preſent year.

'I am perſuaded that you entertain too juſt a ſenſe of the nature and importance

of the conteſt in which we are engaged, to ſuffer your zeal to be abated, or your perſeverance ſhaken, by the recent ſucceſſes of the enemy in the Netherlands.

'In a moment which ſo ſtrongly calls for energy and vigour, it is peculiarly gratifying to me to reflect on the uniform ſkill and bravery of my fleets and armies; the undaunted ſpirit and unwearied exertions of my officers and troops in every ſituation; and the general public ſpirit of my people; which have never at any period been more conſpicuous.

'I have obſerved, with the higheſt ſatisfaction, the rapid and valuable acquiſitions made in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, the ſucceſsful operations which have been carried on in the Mediterranean, and the brilliant and deciſive victory obtained by my fleet under the command of earl Howe; an event which muſt ever be remembered as one of the moſt glorious in the naval hiſtory of this country.

'Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,

'I return you my warmeſt thanks, for the cheerfulneſs and liberality with which you have granted the large ſupplies, which were neceſſary for the ſervice of the year; and for the maintenance of a cauſe equally important to the ſecurity and happineſs of every claſs of my ſubjects.

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'I feel it incumbent upon me particularly to acknowledge your diligence, in the inveſtigation of the deſigns which have been formed againſt the government and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms; and to thank you for the confidence you have repoſed in me on this occaſion. It will be a principal object of my attention to make a vigorous and prudent uſe of the additional powers veſted in me for the protection and ſecurity of my people; and relying, as I do, with the utmoſt confidence, on the uniform loyalty and public ſpirit of the great body of my ſubjects, I have no doubt of ſpeedily and effectually repreſſing every attempt to diſturb the public peace, and of defeating the wicked deſigns which have been in agitation.

'It muſt not, however, be forgotten, that theſe deſigns againſt our domeſtic happineſs are eſſentially connected with the ſyſtem now prevailing in France, of which the principles and ſpirit are irreconcileably hoſtile to all regular and eſtabliſhed government: and that we are therefore called upon by every conſideration of our own intereſt, ſafety, to continue our efforts, in conjunction with my allies, and to perſevere with increaſed vigour and exertion, in a conteſt, from the ſucceſsful termination of which alone we can expect to eſtabliſh, on a ſolid and permanent foundation, the future ſecurity and tranquillity either of this country, or of the other nations of Europe.'

Then the lord-chancellor, by his majeſty's command, ſaid,

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'It is his majeſty's royal will and pleaſure, that this parliament be prorogued to Tueſday the 19th day of Auguſt next, to be then here holden; and this parliament is accordingly prorogued to Tueſday the 19th day of Auguſt next.

JULY 22.

On Saturday, at the concluſion of the ſeſſions at the Old Bailey (at which there were no very remarkable trials, ſeven capital convicts received judgment of death, 16 were ordered to be tranſported beyond the ſeas for the term of ſeven years: two to be impriſoned in Newgate, one in Clerkenwell Bridewell, five to be publicly whipped, three fined 1s. and diſcharged, and 24 diſcharged by proclamation.

Mary Boucher, George Higeſon, Robert Armſtrong, Abraham Abrahams, Mary Thorpe, Alexander Loraine, and Samuel Evans, capital convicts, who had been reſpited during his majeſty's pleaſure, received ſentence to be tranſported for and during their natural lives to the eaſtern coaſt of New South Wales, or ſome one or other of the iſlands adjacent.

The ſeſſions were adjourned until Wedneſday the 17th of September.

JULY 26.

On Wedneſday afternoon, about three o'clock, a dreadful fire broke out at Mr. Clove's, boat-builder, at Cock Hill, Ratcliffe. It was occaſioned by the boiling over of a pitch kettle that ſtood under his warehouſe, which was ſpeedily conſumed. It then communicated to a barge, lying adjoining to the premiſes, and laden with ſaltpetre and other ſtores. Several other veſſels and ſmall craft, lying near the barge, ſoon took fire, without any poſſibility of getting them off. The blowing up of the ſaltpetre from the barge occaſioned large flakes of fire to fall on the warehouſes of the Eaſt India Company, which took fire. Soon after, the ſaltpetre, which they alſo contained, blew up, with different exploſions, like the rolling, as it were, of ſubterranean thunder. The wind blowing ſtrong from the S. W. and the high-ſtreet of Ratcliffe being narrow, both ſides of it caught fire, which prevented the engines from being of any ſervice. Add to this, it was low water, ſo that no ſupply of water could be procured for many hours.

hours. In the courſe of the evening, the fire extended to the premiſes of Mr. Joſeph Hanker, timber merchant, in London-ſtreet, where it raged very furiouſly, and communicated to Butcher-row, the whole of the Weſt and part of the Eaſt ſide of which were conſumed.

The fire had alſo taken its courſe up Brook-ſtreet, caught the premiſes of Mr. Shakſpeare, rope-maker, and burnt thro' to the fields on the one ſide, and the whole of the dwellings on the other; till at length, it ceaſed, for want of materials to conſume, having reached an open ſpace of ground where the connexion of combuſtible ſubſtances was broken; but, toward Limehouſe, it continued to rage till about ten in the evening. What is very remarkable, the dwelling-houſe of Mr. Bere, a large inſulated building, ſtood uninjured amid the vaſt ſurrounding ruins, that were burning almoſt incredibly near it; and yet not even a ſingle pane of glaſs in it was cracked. Mr. Bere was in the houſe the whole time.

A ſurvey was yeſterday taken by the warden and other officers of the hamlet of Ratcliffe, whoſe report was, that out of 1200 houſes of which the hamlet conſiſted, not more than 570 were ſaved.

On account of the great diſtreſs in which this fire involved numbers of poor families, government lent 140 tents, which are now pitched in a field adjoining Stepney church-yard, and accommodate the unfortunate ſufferers till they can be more comfortably provided for.

More houſes have been deſtroyed by this fire than by any one ſince the memorable conflagration of 1666.

Yeſterday a ſubſcription was opened at Lloyd's coffee-houſe, for the benefit of the ſufferers, which meets with great ſucceſs; and collections are made at the gate of the camp, and at all the avenues leading to the extenſive ruins.

PROMOTIONS.

EARL of Carhampton—Lieutenant-general of the ſtaff of Ireland.

Herbert Sawyer, eſq. ſir Richard King, bart. Jonathan Faulkner and Philip Affleck, eſqrs. vice-admirals of the white—Vice admirals of the red.

Thomas Fitzherbert, Samuel Corniſh, John Briſhane, Charles Wolſeley, Samuel Cranſton Goodall, eſqrs. hon. Keith Stewart, and the duke of Clarence, vice-admirals of the blue—Vice-admirals of the white.

Richard Onſlow and Robert Kingſmill, eſqrs. rear-admirals of the red—Vice-admirals of the white.

Sir George Collier, knt. George Bowyer, eſq. ſir Hyde Parker, knt. Rowland Cotton and Benjamin Caldwell, eſqrs. hon. William Cornwallis, William Allen, John Macbride, and George Vandeput, eſqrs. rear-admirals of the red—vice-admirals of the blue.

Charles Buckner, John Gell, William Dickſon, and Alan Gardner, eſqrs. rear-admirals of the white—Vice-admirals of the blue.

John Lewis Gidoin, George Gayton, George Murray, and Robert Linzee, eſqrs. ſir James Wallace, knt. William Peere Williams, and Thomas Paſley, eſqrs. rear-admirals of the white—Rear-admirals of the red.

John Symons, eſq. and ſir Thomas Rich, bart. rear-admirals of the blue—rear-admirals of the red.

Charles Thompſon, James Cumming, John Ford, John Colpoys, Skeffington Lutwidge, Archibald Dickſon, George Montagu, and Thomas Dumareſq, eſq. and hon. ſir George Keith Elphinſtone, K. B. rear-admirals of the blue—Rear-admirals of the white.

Captains James Pigott, hon. William Waldegrave, Thomas Mackenzie, Thomas Pringle, hon. William Clement Finch, ſir Roger Curtais, knt. Henry Harvey, Robert Man, and William Parker—Rear-admirals of the blue.

William Young and James Gambier, eſqrs. and lord Hugh Seymour—Colonels in the marine forces.

William earl Fitzwilliam—a privy-councellor and lord-preſident of the council.

George John earl Spencer—a privy-counſellor.

William Henry Cavendiſh duke of Portland—Secretary of ſtate for the home department.

Right hon. William Windham—Secretary of war.

Alexander duke of Gordon—Keeper of the great ſeal in Scotland.

Right hon. William Windham—a privy-counſellor.

George John earl Spencer—Lord privy ſeal.

Charles Saxton, eſq. of Circourt, Berks—a bart.

Prince William of Gloucester, and the duke of Portland—Knights of the garter.

Evan Nepean, Stephen Cottrell, and James Bland Burges, eſqrs.—Commiſſioners for executing the office of keeper of the privy-ſeal.

Henry Strachey, eſq. maſter of his majeſty's houſehold.

Captains

Captains Hugh Cloberry Chriſtian, and Philip Patton, and Ambroſe Serle, eſq.—Commiſſioners of the tranſport ſervice.

General George marquis Townſhend—Governor of Hull.

General ſir Henry Clinton, K. B.—Governor of Gibraltar.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

JUNE 28.

William Norton, of Briſtol, cordwainer.

William M'Candliſh, of the pariſh of Bury, in Lancaſhire, dyer.

John Loadley, of Bridlington, Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

Henry Hawke the younger, of Acle, in Norfolk, liquor-merchant.

George Frith, of Taviſtock-ſtreet, Covent-garden, haberdaſher.

Thomas Mower, of Bread-ſtreet, London, factor.

John Laſt, and Martin Prior, of Fitzroy-place, Pancras, carpenters.

JULY 1.

William Reeve, of Grocer's-alley, linen-draper.

John Templeman, of Gainsford-ſtreet, Southwark, lighterman.

Thomas Robinſon, of Eton, Bucks, mattreſs-maker.

William Norton, of Briſtol, cordwainer.

Joſeph Gregory, of Melkſham, Wilts, ſhopkeeper.

Thomas Eyre, of Gedling, Nottinghamſhire, cornfactor.

Joſiah Greenwood, of Tiverton, in Devonſhire, linen-draper.

James Daniel, of Mancheſter, innkeeper.

Charles Tompkins the elder, of Great Kington, otherwiſe Kyneton, in Warwickſhire, baker.

John Packer Frome, of Broad-ſtreet, broker.

Thomas Squire, of Mortlake, Surry, carpenter.

JULY 5.

Robert Perry, and William Sedgwick, of Spitalfields, brewers.

Matthew Wilkinſon, of Biſhopwearmouth, in Durham, dealer.

Matthew Lattimore, of Liverpool, victualler.

Thomas Hill, of Market-Harborough, in Leiceſterſhire, innholder.

JULY 8.

Thomas Hatterſley, of Halfmoon-alley, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet without, ſpermaceti-refiner.

John Dawes, of Iſlington, mariner.

William Hedley, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, ſailcloth-manufacturer.

Pillet Kirkham, of Biſhopſgate-ſtreet within, leather-ſeller.

JULY 12.

James Kilpatrick, of Piccadilly, linen-draper.

Violet Fyſe, and James Kilpatrick, of Piccadilly, linen-drapers.

Andrew Carter, of Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, butcher.

John Browne, of Norwich, linen-draper.

William Line, of Aſton, Birmingham, cornfactor.

Thomas Handley, of Thirſk, in Yorkſhire, common carrier.

Frederick Bartholomew Foelſch, and Joſeph Meury, of Birmingham, porter-dealers.

Philip Wright the younger, of Briſtol, cornfactor.

George Wright, of Birmingham, victualler.

Jonathan Sherwood, of Birmingham, ſadler.

Samuel Taylor, of Droitwich, in Worceſterſhire, tanner.

Joſeph Gales, of Sheffield, in Yorkſhire, bookſeller.

Thomas Parker, of Great Surry-ſtreet, in Surry, ironmonger.

William Robinſon, of Ledgley, in Staffordſhire, butcher.

John Watkins, of Camberwell, Surry, plaiſterer.

John Taylor, of Eagle-ſtreet, Red-lion-ſquare, victualler.

JULY 15.

Thomas Nixon, of Tottenham, innholder.

Jacob Nicholas, of Vere-ſtreet, Mary-le-bone, ſadler.

Samuel Johnſon, of Nottingham, grocer.

James Smith, of Wolverhampton, in Staffordſhire, dealer.

JULY 19.

Thomas Baker, of the Borough of Southwark, ſhopkeeper.

Cooke Richardſon, of Horncaſtle, in Lincolnſhire, maltſter.

John Cox, of Perry Slough, Sydenham, in Kent, horſe-dealer.

William Hill, of Market Harborough, in Leiceſterſhire, grocer.

James Shore, of Oxford-ſtreet, ſilverſmith.

John Hairs, of Oxford-ſtreet, ſeedſman.

William Towes, of Gracechurch-ſtreet, ſtationer.

John

John Way, Robert Way, and Peter Whitaker, of Prendergaſt, in Pembrokeſhire, cotton-ſpinners.

James Grainger, of Caſtle-mills, Hereford, mealman.

Joyce Grainger, of Caſtle-mills, Hereford, miller.

James Snape, of Cinder-hill, in Lancaſhire, ſhopkeeper.

JULY 22.

Abner Wyman, of Wiſbeach, in the Iſle of Ely, draper.

John Naſh, of Brewer-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, upholſterer.

Henry King, of Green-ſtreet, Kentiſh-town, haberdaſher.

George Davis, of Piccadilly, wine-merchant.

Francis Lewis, of Oxford-ſtreet, auctioneer.

Thomas Denton, of Carey-ſtreet, Chancery-lane, dealer.

Jeremiah Beck, of Carliſle, Cumberland, mercer.

Thomas Powell, of Llywell, Brecon, butter-merchant.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

WHITEHURST's Obſervations on the Ventilation of Rooms, &c. by Willan, 4to. 3s. 6d. ſewed.

Adams' Lectures on Natural and Experimental Philoſophy, 5 vol. 8vo. 1l. 10s. boards.

Tindall's Hiſtory and Antiquities of Eveſham, 4to. 15s. boards.

Jephſon's Roman Portraits, a Poem, 4to. 1l. 7s. boards.

New Biographical Dictionary, 18mo. 5s.

Peltier's Picture of Paris, 2 vol. 8vo. 16s.

Anſtice's Inquiry into the Laws of falling Bodies, 8vo. 3s. ſewed.

Lucy, 3 vol. 12mo. 10s. 6d.

Amantus and Elmira, 12mo. 3s. 6d.

Shepherdeſs of Arnnville, 12mo. 3s. 6d.

Madeline; or Caſtle of Montgomery, 3 vol. 12mo. 10s. 6d.

Humpage's Reſearches into the moſt important Parts of the Animal Economy, 8vo. 6s.

Moore's Ramble through Holland, France, and Italy, 2 vol. 12mo. 12s.

The Hatting Guide, or a Deſcription of that Town and its Environs, 8vo. 4s. ſewed.

Morgan's Lectures on Electricity, 2 vol. ſmall 8vo. 12s.

Schmeiſſer's Syſtem of Mineralogy, 8vo. 6s.

Fordyce's Diſſertation on Simple Fever, 8vo. 3s. 6d. ſewed.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN.

July 10, 1794.

By the Standard Wincheſter Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	52	1	21	0	26	4	24	1
Surry	52	4	30	0	29	6	24	10
Hertford	48	10	—	—	32	0	23	11
Bedford	45	9	—	—	—	—	26	2
Huntingdon	46	1	—	—	—	—	21	0
Northampton	49	0	34	6	29	9	23	8
Rutland	52	0	—	—	—	—	22	0
Leiceſter	55	10	—	—	36	8	26	2
Nottingham	57	0	41	8	34	0	24	10
Derby	57	0	—	—	—	—	20	0
Stafford	57	3	—	—	43	4	23	9
Salop	57	2	48	6	40	5	24	6
Hereford	55	5	41	8	39	0	24	11
Worceſter	57	2	—	—	35	6	29	10
Warwick	57	7	—	—	—	—	30	8
Wilts	44	0	—	—	31	2	24	10
Berks	50	6	—	—	32	2	27	1
Oxford	49	10	—	—	34	8	25	8
Bucks	49	11	—	—	31	8	27	6
Brecon	59	2	51	2	32	10	16	0
Montgomery	58	11	—	—	—	—	19	0
Radnor	56	11	—	—	32	0	19	9

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	49	8	29	6	31	0	27	3
Kent	46	3	—	—	26	9	23	4
Suſſex	47	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
Suffolk	48	2	28	3	28	6	25	7
Cambridge	43	9	29	0	—	—	18	9
Norfolk	44	11	—	—	24	1	22	9
Lincoln	51	5	—	—	30	0	20	10
York	47	1	36	5	—	—	21	10
Durham	49	7	36	0	—	—	21	7
Northumberland	49	8	36	0	27	1	20	7
Cumberland	56	2	45	4	29	0	21	0
Weſtmorland	55	8	44	0	28	0	22	2
Lancaſter	54	9	—	—	28	7	23	5
Cheſter	54	4	—	—	33	8	23	4
Flint	60	9	—	—	—	—	21	4
Denbigh	60	6	—	—	—	—	22	5
Angleſea	50	0	—	—	32	0	16	0
Carnarvon	54	4	41	0	32	8	18	4
Merioneth	63	6	43	10	34	4	20	0
Cardigan	45	2	36	0	26	8	12	0
Pembroke	40	9	—	—	28	4	—	—
Carmarthen	49	0	—	—	30	0	16	0
Glamorgan	54	5	—	—	34	4	18	1
Glouceſter	52	2	—	—	34	6	26	8
Somerſet	52	0	—	—	34	0	17	8
Monmouth	57	10	—	—	—	—	—	—
Devon	52	6	—	—	25	9	18	1
Cornwall	52	1	—	—	27	5	16	4
Dorſet	47	5	—	—	—	—	26	0
Hants	46	7	—	—	31	0	23	6

Peck Loaf, 2s. 6d.

PRICES of STOCKS, from JUNE 27, to JULY 28, 1794, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot. Tic.
			shut.		shut.			shut.	7s. pr.	shut.		shut.	2½ dif.	
27	163 ⅞	69	68 ¼ a ⅜	83		19 ⅝	9	205 ½	7				2	
28		68 ¼	68 ¼ a 67⅞	83 ⅛		19 ⅝		205 ½	7				2 ⅛	
30	161 ¼	67 ⅞	68 ¼ a 67⅞	82 ⅞		19 ⅝	9	204					2 ⅛	
1	161	67	67 ½ a ¼	82 ⅞		19 ⅝	9	203 ½					2	
2	160 ¾	68	67 ½ a ⅞	82 ⅞		19 ⅝	9	204	9		67 ¼		2	
3	161 ⅛	67 ⅞	67 ½ a 68 ⅛	82 ⅞		19 ⅝	9 ⅛	205 ¼	10				2	
4	160	68	68 a 67⅞	83		19 ⅝	9 ⅛	205 ¼	10				2	
5	161 ¼	67 ½	68 a 67⅞	83		19 ⅝		204 ¾	10				2	
6	161 ⅛	67 ⅞	67 ½ a 68 ⅛	83 ⅛		19 ⅝							2	
8	161 ⅛	68	68 ¼ a 67½	83 ⅛		19 ⅝		204 ¼	11	73 ¼			2	
9		67	67 ¼ a ½	82 ⅞		19 ⅝	9 ⅛	203 ¾	11		66 ⅞		1 ⅞	
10	160 ¾	67	67 ¼ a ⅜	83 ¼		19 ⅝	9 ⅛	204 ¼	11				1 ⅞	
11	160	67 ½	67 ¼ a ⅜	83 ¼		19 ⅝	9 ⅛	203 ¾	11		67 ¼		2	
12		67 ½	67 ¼ a ⅜	83 ¼		19 ⅝	9 ⅛	204	11				2	
14	160 ¾	68	67 ¼ a 68 ¼	84 ¼		19 ⅝	9 ¼	205	11		68 ¼		1 ⅞	
15	165	69	68 ¼ a 69 ¼	85 ¼		20	9 ¼	206 ¼	11				1 ⅞	
16	164 ½	68	68 ¼ a ½	84 ¼		19 ⅞	9 ¼	205 ¼	11		68 ¼		2	
17	164 ¼	68 ¼	68 ¼ a ⅜	84 ¼		19 ⅞	9 ¼	204 ¾	11			66 ¼	2	
18	163	68 ¼	68 ¼ a ⅜	84 ¼		19 ⅞	9 ¼	204 ¾	10		68		2	
19		68 ¼	68 ¼ a ⅜	84 ¼		19 ⅞	9 ¼	204 ¾	9				2	
21		68 ⅜	68 ¼ a ½	84 ¼	101 ½	19 ⅞	9 ¼	204 ¾	10		68 ⅛		2 ⅛	
12	164 ¼	68 ¼	68 ¼ a ½	84 ¼	101	19 ⅞	9 ¼	204 ¾					2 ⅛	
13	164 ¼	68 ¼	66 ¾ a 67⅛	84 ¼	101 ⅛	20	9 ¼	199	10				2	
14		68 ¼	67 a ¼	84 ⅛	101 ⅛	20		199 ½	10				1 ⅞	
15		68	67 ¼ a 67	84 ⅛	101 ⅛				12				1 ⅞	
16		68 ¼	67 a ⅜	84 ½	101 ⅛	20	9 ¼	199 ½	13				1 ⅞	
28	168 ¼	68 ¼	67 ¼ a ½	85	101 ½	20	9 ¼	200	15				1 ⅞	

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

MOLIERE.

UNIV. OF MICH.

MEMOIRS *of the* LIFE *of* JOHN BAPTIST MOLIERE:
With a Portrait of that celebrated Comic Writer and Actor.

JOHN BAPTIST MOLIERE, the glory of the French theatre, was born at Paris, in the year 1620. His real ſurname was *Pocquelin*; and his grandfather, as well as his father, was *valet-de-chambre-tapiſſier* to Lewis XIII. This office was that of a domeſtic upholſterer, whoſe duty was, wherever the king went, to ſee that the royal apartments were in proper order. Young Pocquelin was deſtined by his friends to ſucceed his father in this employment; and they intended, in courſe, to give him an education conformable to their views. His grandfather, however, who was very fond of the boy, and, at the ſame time, a great frequenter of the theatre, took him often to the Hotel-de-Bourgogne, where his natural genius for dramatic performances was firſt excited; and where he conceived, in courſe, ſuch an averſion to his intended employment, that, at laſt, when he was fourteen years of age, his father conſented to ſend him to the Jeſuits College at Clermont. During the five years that he reſided here he made a rapid progreſs in the ſtudy of philoſophy and polite literature. Bernier, Chapelle, and Cyrano (afterward diſtinguiſhed literary characters) were his fellow-pupils under the celebrated Gaſſendi. When Lewis XIII went to Narbonne, in 1641, his ſtudies were interrupted; for his father having become infirm, and unable to attend the court, his ſon was obliged to officiate for him. The French theatre began to flouriſh, at that period, under the auſpices of the illuſtrious Corneille, who had reſcued it from the moſt wretched ſtate of barbariſm. Pocquelin, who appeared deſtined to be the reſtorer of the French Comedy, quitted the employment of his father, upon his death, and aſſociated with ſome young men, who were as paſſionately fond of the theatre as himſelf. It was then that he changed the ſurname of Pocquelin for that of Moliere; either out of deference to his relations, or in conformity to the example of the actors of that time. The ſame ſentiments, and a ſimilarity of taſte, were his motives to a connexion with La Bejart, a country actreſs. They jointly formed a company, which, in 1653, performed, at Lyons, Moliere's firſt play, entitled 'L'Etourdi, or the Blunderer.' Equally applauded in the double character of author and actor, Moliere attracted almoſt all the ſpectators from another theatre eſtabliſhed in that city. This piece was received with equal applauſe at Beziers, to which the company removed ſome time after. We ſhall not enter into a particular criticiſm of this play, or of any of the numerous comedies, which Moliere produced from this time to the period of his dramatic career. It will be ſufficient, if we give his general character as a comic writer at the concluſion of theſe memoirs; referring the reader, for more particular obſervations, to the life of our author in the 'Nouveau Dictionnaire Hiſtorique.'

While Moliere was at Beziers, the prince of Conti, who had known him at the college, and who had predicted the future great man in the young ſtudent, was then holding the ſtates of the province of Languedoc in that city. He received Moliere as a friend; and not ſatisfied with confiding to him the management of the entertainments which he gave, he offered to make him his ſecretary. The French Ariſtophanes refuſed this offer, and added, laughing, 'I am a tolerable author, but I ſhould make a very bad ſecretary.'—Having continued a few years in the country, he removed with his company to Paris, where, in 1658, he gave ſo much ſatisfaction to Lewis XIV, that that monarch, in the ſequel, granted him a penſion of one thouſand

ſand livres, and made his theatrical company his own.

Mohere's laſt comedy was 'Le Malade Imaginaire, or the Hypochondriac,' which was acted, for the fourth time, on the 17th of February 1673. On that very day he died; and the manner of his death, as it was at firſt reported, muſt have been very extraordinary, had it been true. The part of the Hypochondriac, who, upon a certain occaſion, pretends to be dead, was performed by Moliere; and it was ſaid, that when he was expected to riſe, in order to ſhow that it was only a feint, he was found to be actually dead. This incident was ſo far believed, at firſt, that the poets actually took advantage of it; many little jeux d'eſprit were the conſequence; and the following Latin verſes were much admired:

Roſcius hic ſitus eſt triſti Molierus in urna,
Cui genus humanum ludere, ludus erat.
Dum ludit Mortem, Mors indignata jocantem
Corripit, & mimum fingere ſæva negat.

Here Moliere lies, the Roſcius of his age,
Whoſe pleaſure, while he liv'd, was to engage
With human nature in a comic ſtrife,
And perſonate her actions to the life.
But ſurly Death, offended at his play,
Would not be jok'd with in ſo free a way.
He, when he mimick'd him, his voice reſtrain'd,
And made him act in earneſt what he feign'd.

But, according to the beſt accounts, Moliere was indiſpoſed before the performance of the play. His wife and Baron urged him to take ſome care of himſelf, and not to perform that day. 'And what then,' ſaid he, 'is to become of my poor performers? I ſhould reproach myſelf if I neglected them a ſingle day.'—The exertions which he made to go through his part, produced a convulſion, followed by a vomiting of blood, which ſuffocated him ſome hours after, in the fifty-third year of his age. At this time, the firſt vacant place in the French academy was intended for him; and he was to have performed, in future, only in the higher walks in comedy. The archbiſhop of Paris refuſing to permit him to be interred in conſecrated ground, the widow of this great man exclaimed: 'They refuſe a grave to him, to whom Greece would have erected altars.'—The king, however, interpoſing, the archbiſhop was induced to give up the point, and Moliere was interred in St. Joſeph's, a chapel of eaſe to the pariſh of St. Euſtache.

It is related that Moliere read his comedies to an elderly female ſervant, named Laforet, and when he perceived that the paſſages which he intended to be humorous and laughable had no effect upon her, he altered them. He required the players alſo to bring their children to the rehearſals, that he might form his opinion of different paſſages from the natural expreſſions of their emotions. Moliere, who diverted himſelf on the theatre by laughing at the follies of mankind, could not guard againſt the effects of his own weakneſs. Seduced by a violent paſſion for the daughter of La Bejart, the actreſs, he married her, and was ſoon expoſed to all the ridicule with which he had treated the huſbands who were jealous of their wives. Happier in the ſociety of his friends, he was beloved by his equals, and courted by the great. Marſhal de Vivonne, the great Condé, and even Lewis XIV, treated him with that familiarity which conſiders merit as on a level with birth. Theſe flattering diſtinctions neither corrupted his underſtanding nor his heart. A poor man having returned him a piece of gold which he had given him by miſtake, 'In what a humble abode,' he exclaimed 'does Virtue dwell! Here, my friend, 'take another.'—When Baron informed him of one of his old theatrical companions whom extreme poverty prevented from appearing, Moliere ſent for him, embraced him, and to words of conſolation added a preſent of twenty piſtoles and a rich theatrical dreſs. When he was in the

height of his reputation, Racine, who was juſt then come from Languedoc, and was ſcarcely known in Paris, went to ſee him, under pretence of conſulting him about an ode which he had juſt finiſhed. Moliere expreſſed ſuch a favourable opinion of the ode, that Racine ventured to ſhew him his firſt tragedy, founded on the martyrdom of Theagenes and Chariclea, as he had read it in the Greek romance. Moliere, who had an honeſt conſciouſneſs of ſuperiority, which exalted him above envy, was not ſparing either of praiſe or of counſel. His liberality carried him ſtill farther; he knew that Racine was not in eaſy circumſtances, and therefore lent him a hundred louis-d'ors; thinking it a ſufficient recompence to have the honour of producing a genius to the public, which, he foreſaw, would one day be the glory of the ſtage.

Of the character of Moliere as a dramatic writer, we ſhall ſpeak in the words of Dr. Blair:' The general characters of the French comic theatre are,' ſays this judicious critic, 'that it is correct, chaſte, and decent. Several writers of conſiderable note it has produced, ſuch as Regnard, Dufreſny, Dancourt, and Marivaux; but the dramatic author in whom the French glory moſt, and whom they juſtly place at the head of all their comedians, is the famous Moliere. There is, indeed, no author, in all the fruitful and diſtinguiſhed age of Lewis XIV, who has attained a higher reputation than Moliere; or who has more nearly reached the ſummit of perfection in his own art, according to the judgment of all the French critics. Voltaire boldly pronounces him to be the moſt eminent comic poet of any age or country; nor, perhaps, is this the decition of mere partiality; for, taking him upon the whole, I know none who deſerves to be preferred to him. Moliere is always the ſatiriſt only of vice or folly. He has ſelected a great variety of ridiculous characters peculiar to the times in which he lived, and he has generally placed the ridicule juſtly. He poſſeſſed ſtrong comic powers; he is full of mirth and pleaſantry; and his pleaſantry is always innocent. His comedies in verſe, ſuch as his Miſanthrope and Tartuffe, are a kind of dignified comedy, in which vice is expoſed, in the ſtyle of elegant and poliſhed ſatire. In his proſe comedies, though there is abundance of ridicule, yet there is never any thing to offend a modeſt ear, or to throw contempt on ſobriety and virtue. Together with thoſe high qualities, Moliere has alſo ſome defects, which Voltaire, though his profeſſed panegyriſt, candidly admits, He is acknowledged not to be happy in the unravelling of his plots. Attentive more to the ſtrong exhibition of characters, than to the conduct of the intrigue, his unravelling is frequently brought on with too little preparation, and in an improbable manner. In his verſe comedies, he is ſometimes not ſufficiently intereſting, and too full of long ſpeeches; and in his riſible pieces in proſe, he is cenſured for being too farcical. Few writers, however, if any, ever poſſeſſed the ſpirit, or attained the true end of comedy, ſo perfectly, upon the whole, as Moliere. His Tartuffe, in the ſtyle of grave comedy, and his Avare, in the gay, are accounted his two capital productions.'

Nor have our Britiſh poets neglected to pay the juſt tribute of praiſe to this great dramatic writer. Thus, lord Lyttelton, in an Epiſtle, written from Paris, in 1728, to the Rev. Dr. Ayſcough at Oxford:

Here Moliere, firſt of comic wits, excell'd
Whate'er Athenian theatres beheld;
By keen, yet decent, ſatire ſkill'd to pleaſe,
With morals mirth uniting, ſtrength with eaſe.

And Thomſon, in his Liberty, a Poem:

Let Gallic bards record—how Moliere's ſcene,
Chaſtis'd and regular, with well-judg'd wit,
Not ſcatter'd wild, and native humour, grac'd,
Was life itſelf;

HOW TO WRITE NOVELS.

'UTILE DULCI.'

THE utility of novel-writing being paſt all contradiction, it is neceſſary, before the publication of a tale, to render it ſo palatable to the taſte of the age, and ſo comformable to the ſpirit of the times, that nothing deſpicably natural, or ſtooping ſo low as common ſenſe, ſhould be the attributes of theſe elegant productions. We all of us view each ſcene of nature (however beautiful) with the moſt undiſturbed emotion; and why? Becauſe they are perpetually exhibited before our eyes; and ſo continual a ſameneſs palls upon our inquiſitive ſenſes, and renders us diſſatisfied, and reſtleſs. As man ought to be happy, and as his faculties are ever on the ſtretch, ſo it would be unreaſonable to deny ſuch gratifications, eſpecially through the vulgar evaſion of paſſing the bounds of probability and truth. No viſionary and rapturous flights are we to experience, if we are thus checked in our imagination; chivalry itſelf, muſt, with all its reſpectable and Gothic allurements, fall to the ground; and no gallant adventurer armed cap-a-pié, will iſſue forth to conquer unknown enemies, in unknown regions, for unknown ladies. Such godlike avocations would then ſink to the depth of mere reaſon, and ſubmit to the moſt inſolent enquiries; while Simplicity, that moping and melancholy child of ſolitude, would triumph in her ruſticated nakedneſs, diveſted of all the regalia of art, and the decorations of eternal fancy. Ah! let not the inexhauſtible muſe of levity ſuffer ſuch encroachments! Rather, in the frenzy of vengeance, let her cauſe new tranſlations of The One Thouſand and One Nights, to be diſperſed through nations, for the benefit of unborn ſouls. Rather than ſuffer one ſpark of ſentiment to diminiſh from the ever-breathing zephyrs of romantic ſenſibility, let the receſſes of the ſeraglio, of Lilliput and Brobdignag be explored, to furniſh new ideas for thoſe who are vacant and exhauſted. In vain will the blandiſhments of muſic, of painting, of *all* the fine arts, of love, of languid attachments, and ſilent eloquence exiſt, if they are not perpetuated, and are ſuffered to decay. Each uſurpation, however petty in its appearance, ſtrikes at the root of ſuch dignified and privileged occupations, and ought to be repreſſed by every coercive meaſure, that can proceed from the inventions of boundleſs genius. It has been ſaid by the taſteleſs part of the world, that the preſs has teemed with ſuch an over-abundance of theſe *captivating* works, that it is quite overburdened, and that they are a nuiſance both to the trade, and to the *ladies* who are *obliged* to read, before they can judge. Such objections as theſe will naturally fall into their own groveling obſcurity, and without trouble ſink into the oblivion they ſo juſtly merit. We have, for our part, the moſt ſerious cauſe for lamentation, to obſerve the ſpirit of novel-writing ſo near its diſſolution. Thoſe exuberant, and heart-melting letters of Fitzoſborne, and Fitzaubin, and Fitzjames, and Fitzjohn, we view with real regret to decline. Indeed, the paſſion for Fitzes ſeems ſo near over, that we deſpair of ever finding ſo happy a ſuccedaneum. Lady Racket to lord Ormond, and lord Racket to lady Ormond, though titles of a very ſeducing caſt, have nevertheleſs had *their* day, and ſeem now to yield the palm to a mere monoſyllable. But whatever titles may do, it is the internal matter that intereſts *our* attention, and calls forth every obſerving faculty of the ſoul. With regard to the ever flowing ſtyle, and to picturesque deſcription, the authoreſs of Udolpho has as far outrivalled Mr. Gilpin, the celebrated competitor to pictureſque fame, as the moon in her glory eclipſes each ſurrounding ſtar. The blaze of artifice may triumph indeed in a few prints, compoſed of *yellow* and *black*, with the endleſs proſpect of earth and

ſky;

ſky; but the minuteneſs of deſcription which this lady has given to the moſt inſignificant ſhrub, enhances its original value, and has cauſed our eyes to be awakened to beauties hitherto dreamt not of. It is true, there has not been a little ſaid of late concerning haunted priories, caſtles, towers, &c. of paſſing-bells, of blue lights, and of death-cold hands. Abſtracting the magnificence of ſuch ſcenes, it is enough for us to conſider the awful impreſſion they leave upon our minds. The horrors of a murdered or diſturbed knight wandering up and down, clad in complete ſteel, with eyes darting fire, viſage lengthened and pale, added to the moſt terrific frowns, which are equalled only by his tremendous and rattling helmet; and to complete the *ne plus ultra* of deſcription, the convulſions of the elements, conſpiring to form the very climax of a 'nameleſs deed.' Such tales, if not *beautiful*, muſt be allowed to be *ſublime*; and he who was a ſceptic hitherto, will be ſo no longer, after the peruſal of publications of ſuch a ghoſtlike tendency. In ſhort, there is no claſs of literature that has been ſo degraded by critics, as novels. Yet I would venture to hold them up to an enlightened age, as models of excellence. In a novel, there is hiſtory, biography, poetry, moral philoſophy, the ſcience of human life, the knowledge of men and things, and what is more, the delineation of the human heart; wherein paſſions are divided into as many different claſſes, as there are ranunculuſes in the Linnæan ſyſtem. It moreover unites phyſiognomy with its many attractions; for the language of the eyes is a ſure prologue to that of the heart, and he who does not dwell upon fine eyes *for a chapter or two* at leaſt, is no noveliſt. Thus may he ſee nature *veluti in ſpeculum*, and thus by blending the inſtructive with the entertaining, we ſhall glide down the current of life, and participate in the pleaſures, and ſympathize with the ſorrows of our friends, till

'Tir'd we ſink,
'And life's poor play is o'er.'

J. W.

On the MOUNTAINS *in the* WEST INDIES, *with Reflections on the Origin of Mountains in general.*

In our laſt Magazine we gave, from Mr. Edward's *excellent* 'Hiſtory of the Britiſh Colonies in the Weſt Indies,' *an Account of the Climate of thoſe Iſlands, and of the Beauty and Singularity of their vegetable and animal Productions. We ſhall now proceed to the Author's Account of the Magnificence and Sublimity of their Mountains, with the intereſting Reflections that conclude it.*

BUT, reſigning to the naturaliſt the taſk of minutely deſcribing the ſplendid aërial tribes of theſe regions, whoſe variety is not leſs remarkable than their beauty, I now return from theſe, the ſmalleſt and moſt pleaſing forms of active life, to the largeſt and moſt awful objects of inanimate nature. The tranſition is abrupt; but it is in the magnitude, extent, and elevation of the mountains of the New World, that the Almighty has moſt ſtrikingly manifeſted the wonders of his omnipotence. Thoſe of South America are ſuppoſed to be nearly twice the height of the higheſt in the ancient hemiſphere, and, even under the equator, have their tops involved in everlaſting ſnow. To thoſe maſſive piles, the loftieſt ſummits of the moſt elevated of the Weſt Indian iſlands cannot indeed be compared; but ſome of theſe riſe, nevertheleſs, in amazing grandeur, and are among the firſt objects that fix the attention of the voyager. The mountains of Hiſpaniola in particular, whoſe wavy ridges are deſcried from ſea at the diſtance of thirty leagues, towering far above the clouds

in

in ſtupendous magnificence, and the Blue Mountains of Jamaica, have never yet, that I have heard, been fully explored. Neither curioſity nor avarice has hitherto ventured to invade the topmoſt of thoſe lofty regions. In ſuch of them as are acceſſible, nature is found to have put on the appearance of a new creation. As the climate changes, the trees, the birds, and the inſects are ſeen alſo to differ from thoſe which are met with below. To an unaccuſtomed ſpectator, looking down from thoſe heights, the whole ſcene appears like enchantment. The firſt object which catches the eye at the dawn of day, is a vaſt expanſe of vapour, covering the whole face of the vallies. Its boundaries being perfectly diſtinct, and viſibly circumſcribed, it has the exact reſemblance of an immenſe body of water, while the mountains appear like ſo many iſlands in the midſt of a beautiful lake. As the ſun increaſes in force, the proſpect varies: the incumbent vapours fly upward, and melt into air; diſcloſing all the beauties of nature, and the triumphs of induſtry, heightened and embelliſhed by the full blaze of a tropical ſun. In the equatorial ſeaſon, ſcenes of ſtill greater magnificence frequently preſent themſelves; for, while all is calm and ſerene in the higher regions, the clouds are ſeen below ſweeping along the ſides of the mountains in vaſt bodies; till, growing more ponderous by accumulation, they fall at length in torrents of water on the plains. The ſound of the tempeſt is diſtinctly heard by the ſpectator above; the diſtant lightning is ſeen to irradiate the gloom; while the thunder, reverberated in a thouſand echoes, rolls far beneath his feet.

But lofty as the tropical mountains generally are, it is wonderfully true, that all the known parts of their ſummits furniſh inconteſtable evidence that the ſea had once dominion over them. Even their appearance at a diſtance affords an argument in ſupport of this concluſion. Their ridges reſemble billows, and their various inequalities, inflexions, and convexities, ſeem juſtly aſcribable to the fluctuations of the deep. As in other countries too, marine ſhells are found in great abundance in various parts of theſe heights. I have ſeen on a mountain, in the interior parts of Jamaica, petrified oyſters dug up, which perfectly reſembled, in every the moſt minute particular, the large oyſters of the weſtern coaſt of England; a ſpecies not to be found at this time, I believe, in the ſeas of the Weſt Indies. Here, then, is an ample field for conjecture to expatiate in; and indeed few ſubjects have afforded greater exerciſe to the pens of phyſical writers, than the appearances I have mentioned. Some philoſophers aſſign the origin of all the various inequalities of the earth to the ravages of the deluge. Others, conſidering the mountains as the parents of ſprings and rivers, maintain that they are coeval with the world; and that, firſt emerging from the abyſs, they were created with it. Some again aſcribe them to the force of volcanos and earthquakes: 'The Almighty,' ſay they, 'while he permits ſubterranean fires to ſwallow up cities and plains in one part of the globe, cauſes them to produce promontories and iſlands in another, which afterward become the fruitful ſeats of induſtry and happineſs.'

All theſe and other theoriſts concur, however, in the belief that the ſurface of the globe has undergone many ſurpriſing and violent convulſions and changes ſince it firſt came from the hands of the Creator. Hills have ſunk into plains, and vallies have been exalted into hills. Reſpecting the numerous iſlands of the Weſt Indies, they are generally conſidered as the tops of lofty mountains, the eminences of a great continent, converted into iſlands by a tremendous concuſſion of nature, which, increaſing the natural courſe of the ocean from eaſt to weſt, has laid a vaſt extent of level country under water*.

But notwithſtanding all that has

* See l'Abbé Raynal, l'Abbé Pluche, and others.

been

been written on this ſubject, very little ſeems to be known. The advocates of this ſyſtem do not ſufficiently conſider, that the ſea could not have covered ſo great a portion of land on one ſide of the globe, without leaving an immenſe ſpace as ſuddenly dry on the other. We have no record in hiſtory of ſo mighty a revolution, nor indeed are many of the premiſes on which this hypotheſis is built, eſtabliſhed in truth.

Perhaps, inſtead of conſidering theſe iſlands as the fragments of a deſolated continent, we ought rather to regard them as the rudiments of a new one. It is extremely probable, that many of them, even now, are but beginning to emerge from the boſom of the deep. Mr. Buffon has ſhewn, by incontrovertible evidence, that the bottom of the ſea bears an exact reſemblance to the land which we inhabit; conſiſting, like the earth, of hills and vallies, plains and hollows, rocks, ſands and ſoils of every conſiſtence and ſpecies. To the motion of the waves, and the ſediments which they have depoſited, he imputes too, with great probability, the regular poſitions of the various ſtrata or layers which compoſe the upper parts of the earth; and he ſhews that theſe ſtrata cannot have been the effect of a ſudden revolution, but of cauſes ſlow, gradual, and ſucceſſive in their operations. To the flow of tides and rivers, depoſiting materials which have been accumulating ever ſince the creation, and the various fluctuations of the deep operating thereon, he aſcribes, therefore, moſt of the great changes which have happened in the original ſtructure of our globe, and the riſe of many of thoſe heights and inequalities which in ſome parts embelliſh, and in others (to our limited view at leaſt) deface it.

But by what means did theſe materials, when accumulated together, and raiſed to the utmoſt reach of the ſurrounding fluid, ſtill continue to increaſe till they became elevated to the height at which we now behold the Alps and the Andes? Who can believe that the ocean, on Mr. Buffon's ſyſtem, has at any time lifted up his waves to the peak of Teneriff or the ſnows of Chimborazo *? Theſe are points that mock our reſearches; for conjectures are endleſs, and the labours of the wiſeſt of men afford but a glimmering of light to direct us in tracing the wonders of creation. They who ſeem beſt qualified to contemplate the works of the Deity, will moſt readily acknowledge that it is not for men to unfold the page of Omnipotence!—Happy, if to conſcious ignorance they add humble adoration.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* FEEDING *of* SHEEP.

[From Mr. Leatham's Survey of the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire, for the Board of Agriculture.]

HORSES and cattle are ſuited to flat and low grounds; ſheep to wolds and elevated ſituations. A flock of ſheep is of ſuch importance to the farmer, grazier, manufacturer, and merchant, and indeed to the public in general, that on the wolds, and other places equally adapted to them, no more land ſhould be ploughed than may be requiſite to produce turnips for their accommodation, and to meliorate the land ſo as to enable it to maintain a greater flock. By this management the land will alſo produce more grain than can be conceived without attention to the ſubject. Land, like the animal creation, certainly requires a degree of reſt, and therefore ſhould be occaſionally ſown down with graſs-ſeeds, and for a time kept in graſs. This remedy will be more or leſs effectual in proportion to the richneſs or poverty of the ſoil, when ſown down with graſs

* The higheſt of the Andes.

ſeeds;

ſeeds; and the ſtock feeding upon it will thrive more or leſs in the ſame proportion, and make a greater or leſs return to the owner. When land is laid down in good condition, the vivifying principles of vegetation are ſupported and augmented by the manure from the ſtock feeding on the land; and the richneſs of the ſoil is increaſed till it equals in quality the land which we diſtinguiſhed by the term *freſh*, or which has never loſt any of its fertility by improper treatment. It ſhould be the object of every farmer, who wiſhes to derive any benefit from his farm, to improve the land till it ſhall have acquired this degree of richneſs.

Perſons who have not given due attention to this ſubject, as many have not, will be ſurpriſed to find that this plan not only increaſes, but infinitely improves the ſtock. Sheep fed on land in good condition, newly ſown with graſs ſeeds, and afterward with turnips, at the proper ſeaſon, will be preſerved from diſorder; but when fed on old, worn-out land, producing unwholeſome herbage, they will loſe their condition; and when afterward put to turnips, or better food, they are often attacked by diſorders in the ſpring, which will produce a great mortality among them. This was the caſe laſt ſpring in thoſe parts of the wolds where the ſheep are kept in this poor way during winter, till the approach of ſpring, and then put to turnips. The black-water, which often proves mortal, will about Michaelmas attack thoſe lambs not put to clover, graſs ſeeds, or ſome wholeſome herbage, when taken from the ewes.

This might be prevented entirely, would farmers make turnips and graſs ſeeds more their object; and abating their avidity for corn, be ſatisfied with one crop, inſtead of three. This, I can affirm, would be moſt profitable in the event.

On the ROT *in* SHEEP.

[From the SAME.]

VARIETY of opinions are entertained as to the cauſe of this diſorder: ſome ſuppoſe that it ariſes from a particular kind of plant or inſect, but the liver-wort is moſt blamed; others, that it is cauſed by a fluſh of graſs after rain; moſt perſons, that it is occaſioned by low and wet land. As to the firſt, the all-wiſe Creator is too beneficent not to furniſh an animal which muſt range for its food with ſufficient inſtinct to avoid the plants baneful to its health. As to the fluſh of graſs, it is not likely that a cauſe ſo temporary ſhould have ſo laſting an effect; and the notion is futile, becauſe the grounds whereon ſheep have never taken the diſorder, have thoſe fluſhes after rain, and often more luxuriantly than thoſe where the ſheep have been affected with this diſorder. There can be no doubt but that the rot occaſionally is cauſed by low and wet lands; but at the ſame time it is equally true, that many low and flat grounds are free from it; as, for inſtance, ſalt marſhes and warp lands in general.

Sheep naturally delight in the moſt airy and dry ſituations, as may be proved from the conſtant preference which they give to the higheſt paſtures, even in cold weather, and from the perfect health that they enjoy on ſoils which, free from a noxious and damp air, produce a ſweet, wholeſome, and nouriſhing herbage, ſuch as we find on a kind loam, with a ſubſtratum of ſtone or chalk, perfectly dry, on ſand free from any ſpring near its ſurface, and on ſalt marſh and warp land made by the ſea.

From the above we may fairly conclude, that the complaint of the rot muſt ariſe from paſtures of an oppoſite nature; on which when ſheep are con-

fined, a wet or dry ſeaſon will make no difference; for a thin, ſtarved ſoil, ſituated in a cloſe, unwholeſome air, producing a coarſe and crude herbage of little nouriſhment, and having a ſpring near the ſurface, muſt always occaſion the rot.

Nor is this kind of land only troubled with this evil; for land alſo which in ſome degree partakes of its nature, is ſubject in proportion to the ſame miſchief: this land is of three deſcriptions, the firſt contains a ſoil deeper and better than the laſt, but ſtill having a ſubſtratum, open and full of ſprings. In very dry weather, this land has not a tendency to the rot, becauſe exceſſive drought purifies the air, decreaſes the ſprings, and conſequently dries and renders the herbage more wholeſome: the ſecond is a ſoil in part like the laſt, but interſperſed here and there with wholeſome ſpots, free from the rot; this will not injure the ſheep in moderate ſeaſons; but when hard ſtocked, in wet ſeaſons, it will certainly rot them, as the ſheep then will have no choice, but muſt feed equally on every part, whether wholeſome or dangerous. The third deſcription of land conſiſts of a ſtrong and rather coarſe clay, or hazle loam, free from ſprings; on this land, ſheep may feed in ſafety, except in exceſſive wet ſeaſons, ſuch as that in the year 1792, when this kind of earth or ſoil is ſo ſaturated with moiſture, and retains it ſo long, as to render the herbage unwholeſome and crude, and the air humid and unſalutary.

This diſorder appears to me to be merely a conſumption, proceeding from the cauſes above mentioned.

Prevention appears to be better than remedy; and the health of the ſheep might be always ſecured by the farmer's *ſuiting the ſtock to the land*; I truſt, therefore, the above obſervations will be of ſome uſe.

I ſhould be ſorry, however, to diſcourage any perſon from attempting the cure in any other way.

MISCELLANIES:

BIOGRAPHICAL, POLITICAL, *and* LITERARY.

Sir THOMAS MORE, Lord Chancellor,

USED to ſay, that he who is covetous when he is old, is like a thief that ſteals when he is going to be executed. The man who ſends his alms to heaven is a wiſe man; for who would not wiſh to ſend his eſtate, whither he is going to be baniſhed himſelf? The more we have of any thing elſe, except *riches*, the more good we are.—It was ſaid of this eminent man, that his experience and prudence had a foreſight, which was next door to prophecy. His attachment to the Roman catholic religion has been objected to him; but it ought to be remembered that he acted upon a conſcientious principle.

Sir THOMAS WYAT,

WHOSE repartees are often republiſhed in modern collections, afforded by his example the true laws by which wit ought to be guarded. He never played upon a man's unhappineſs or deformity, becauſe it was inhuman; nor on his ſuperiors, becauſe it was ſaucy and undutiful; nor on ſerious or ſacred ſubjects, for that was impious. He had much ſalt, but no gall; often jeſting, but never jearing. He obſerved times, places, and circumſtances, knowing when to ſpeak, and when to hold his peace. His repartees were rather natural than affected; ſubtile and acute, prompt and eaſy, yet not careleſs; never rendering himſelf contemptible to pleaſe others. He deſpiſed an inſipid ringing the changes on words; his wit was on *matters*. It is the misfortune of profeſſed wits, that they are not able to underſtand ſome of theſe rules, nor to practiſe others.

Sir JOHN FINEUX,

AN eminent and able lawyer in the time of Henry the ſeventh, was of opinion, that a man will ſeldom ſucceed who truſts much to the circumſtances of birth and family; and he uſed to ſay, that no man thrived, but he that lived as if he were the firſt man in the world, and his father were not born before him; adding, that he would long ago have been undone by his acquaintances, if he had not been raiſed by his *friends*.

Sir JOHN MASON.

IT was the cuſtom in the days of Henry VIII and Edward VI, when this ſtateſman lived, to ſelect the moſt promiſing youths from the two univerſities, and ſend them abroad, at the public expence, to make ſuch obſervations as might qualify them to be ſerviceable at home. With this view, ſir John was ſent abroad, and a paper of inſtructions given him, which unfold to us the political ſyſtem of education prevalent in thoſe days. He was ordered to keep exact correſpondence with the ſecretary at home: to entertain the moſt eminent ſcholar, who might repreſent the church; the ripeſt under-ſecretary, who might explain to him the ſtate; the ableſt ſoldier and ſeaman, who might open to him the intereſt of both nations: to take an exact account of the harbours, forts, cities, avenues, paſſages, ways, treaſure, and intereſt of the place he lives in: to follow the reſpective ambaſſador's directions in every court: to appear in each place upon any ſolemnity, civil or military, ſuitable to the occaſion, all charges to be defrayed from the Engliſh exchequer. Sir John's penſion was 220l. a year, a large ſum in thoſe days; and his circuit was France, the Netherlands, and Italy. His commiſſion was to engage any knowing perſon of thoſe reſpective courts, that could tranſcribe their edicts or orders, give exact intelligence, or who had any intereſt or influence upon their reſpective governments. He was to ſend home a monthly account of ſuch remarks as occurred, at large, to the ſecretary; and, in brief, to the king and cardinal.

Sir John uſed to ſay there were four things which kept him ſafe, under all the revolutions, during the four princes reigns whom he ſerved: 1. That he thought few things would ſave a man: 2. That he was always intimate with the exacteſt lawyer, and ableſt favourite: 3. That he ſpake little, and wrote leſs; and 4. That he had attained to ſomething which each party eſteemed ſerviceable to them, and was ſo moderate that all thought him their own.

Dr. THOMAS WILSON

WAS, for four years, private ſecretary to queen Eliſabeth. It was a favourite declaration of his, what *all* great men know, that he was *ſix* times a ſlave. 1. To himſelf, and his inclination, until he had advanced to years of diſcretion. 2. To the world and its inſolence, until he *had* improved his fortune. 3. To his pupils and their tempers, until he underſtood their genius. 4. To fame and its reports, until he was known to the world. 5. To his ſovereigns (Mary, Eliſabeth and James) until he found out their inclinations and humours: and 6. To his buſineſs, until he had attained experience.

WALTER Earl of ESSEX.

SIR Walter, the father of the unhappy ſubject of this memoir, held *it* as a maxim, that diſcontent was the greateſt weakneſs of a generous mind, which is always ſo intent upon its unhappineſs, that it forgets its remedies. There were three things that undid the earl: he could not imagine that he was to be ruined by his advancement; he never miſtruſted an oath; and he never conſidered that favourites, like princes, have many eyes and long hands. He that is ſo open as to reſerve nothing from friends, is renowned for charity; but he that by this means is to lie at the mercy of all, is marked for ruin. No

ſooner

ſooner did the earl of Leiceſter underſtand Eſſex's diſpoſition, than even the court fool *Pace* could tell his fortune, begging of my lord the making of his mourning; and added, 'You and I have done for this world!'

WILLIAM Lord PAWLET,

ANOTHER of queen Eliſabeth's miniſters, and who had, indeed, ſerved Henry VII, Henry VIII, Edward, and queen Mary, held two maxims as uſeful for mankind, as they ſeem oppoſite to one another: firſt, that in our conſiderations and debates, we ſhould not dwell in deceitful generals, but look into clear particulars. 2dly, that in our reſolutions and concluſions, we ſhould not reſt on various particulars, but riſe to uniform generals.

Sir JAMES DYER,

WAS lord-chief juſtice of the common-pleas for twenty-four years, from the firſt of Eliſabeth. There is a manuſcript of his extant, or that lately was, in which he lays down forty-ſix rules for the preſervation of the kingdom. Theſe are curious, as giving us an epitome of the political philoſophy of that period.

Firſt, That true religion be eſtabliſhed. 2. To keep the parts of the commonwealth equal. 3. That the middle ſort of people exceed both the extremes. 4. That the nobility be called to ſerve, or at leaſt to appear at the court by themſelves, or by the hopes of their families, their children. 5. That the court pay well. 6. That trade be free, and manufactures, with all other ingenuities, encouraged. 7. That there be no co-equal powers, nor any other uſurpations againſt the foundation. 8. That there be notice taken of wiſe and well-affected perſons to employ them. 9. That corruption be reſtrained. 10. That the prince ſhew himſelf abſolute in his authority firſt, and then indulgent in his nature. 11. That the firſt ferment of ſedition, *want*, &c. be conſidered. 12. That preferments be beſtowed on merit, and not faction. 13. That troubleſome perſons be employed abroad. 14. That emulations be over-ruled. 15. That the ancient and moſt eaſy way of contributions when neceſſary, be followed. 16. That the youth be diſciplined. 17. That diſcourſes and writings of government, and its myſteries, be reſtrained. 18. That the active and buſy be taken to employment. 19. That the king ſhew himſelf often in majeſty, tempered with familiarity, eaſy acceſs, tenderneſs, &c. 20. That the prince perform ſome expected actions at court himſelf. 21. That no one man be gratified with the grievance of many. 22. That acts of grace paſs in the chief magiſtrate's name, and acts of ſeverity in the miniſter's. 23. That the prince borrow when he hath *no* need. 24. That he be ſo well furniſhed with warlike proviſions, citadels, ſhips, as to be renowned for it. 25. That the neighbouring ſtates be balanced. 26. That the prince maintain very knowing agents, ſpies, and intelligencers. 27. That none be ſuffered to raiſe a quarrel between the prerogative and the law. 28. That the people be awaked by muſters. 29. That in caſes of *faction*, colonies and plantations be found out to *receive ill humours!* 30. That the ſeas, the ſea coaſt, and borders be ſecured. 31. That the prince be either reſident himſelf, or by a good-natured and popular favourite. 32. To act things by degrees, and check all the haſty, importunate, raſh, and turbulent, though well-affected. 33. That the inhabitants have *honour* promiſcuouſly, but that *power* be kept in the hands of the well-affected. 34. That there be, as far as can be, plain-dealing, and the people never think they are deceived. 35. That there be a ſtrict eye kept upon learning, arms, and mechanical arts. 36. That there be frequent wars. 37. To obſerve the diviſions among favourites, though not to encourage them. 38. That an account be given of the public expences. 39. That inventions be encouraged. 40. That the country be kept in its due dependence on the crown, againſt the times of war, elections, &c. and to that purpoſe that

the courtiers keep good houſes, &c. 41. That no diſobliging perſon be truſted. 42. That executions be few, ſudden, and ſevere. 43. To improve the benefit of a kingdom's ſituation. 44. That the liberties and privileges of the ſubject be ſo clearly ſtated, that there may be no pretences for worſe purpoſes. 45. That the coin be neither tranſported nor debaſed. 46. That luxury be ſuppreſſed.

WILLIAM NOY,

ATTORNEY-GENERAL to Charles I, owed his early reputation to the following circumſtance. Three graziers at a fair, had left their money with their hoſteſs while they went to market; one of them calls for the money and runs away; the other two come upon the woman, and ſue her for delivering that to one, which ſhe had received from the three, before the three came and demanded it. The cauſe went againſt the woman, and judgment was ready to be pronounced, when Mr. Noy, being a ſtranger, wiſhed her to give him a fee, becauſe he could not plead elſe; and then moves in arreſt of judgment, that he was retained by the defendant, and that the caſe was this; the defendant had received the money of the three together, and confeſſeth that ſhe was not to deliver it until the ſame three demanded it; and, therefore, added he, the money is ready; let the three men come, and it ſhall be paid. This motion altered the whole proceeding.

NICHOLAS AMHURST,

THE celebrated poetical and political writer of the preſent century, was expelled the univerſity of Oxford, for miſbehaviour. In his *Terræ Filius*, he wiſhes us to believe that he was perſecuted ſolely for the liberality of his ſentiments, and his attachment to the cauſe of the Revolution and of the Hanover ſucceſſion. In his letter to Dr. Delaune, preſident of St. John's, he explains to him, in a vein of irony, the real cauſes of his expulſion. 'You'll pardon me, good ſir, if I think it neceſſary, for your honour, to mention the many heinous crimes for which I was brought to ſhame. None were indeed publicly alleged againſt me at that time, becauſe it might as well be done afterward; ſure old Engliſhmen can never forget that there is ſuch a thing as hanging a man firſt, and trying him afterward; ſo it fared with me; my proſecutors firſt proved me, by an undeniable argument, to be no fellow of St. John's college, and then to be—the lord knows what.

'My indictment may be collected out of the faithful annals of common fame, which runs thus: advices from Oxford ſay, that on the 29th of June 1719, one Nicholas Amhurſt of St. John's college, was expelled for the following reaſons: Imprimis, for loving foreign turnips, and preſbyterian biſhops. *Item.* For ingratitude to his benefactor, that ſpotleſs martyr, William Laud. *Item.* For believing that ſleeples and organs are not neceſſary to ſalvation. *Item.* For preaching without orders, and praying without a commiſſion. *Item.* For lampooning prieſt-craft and petticoat-craft. *Item.* For not lampooning the government and the revolution. *Item.* For prying into ſecret hiſtory.'

To this expulſion, from whatever cauſe it proceeded, the political world were indebted for the craftſman, a periodical paper againſt ſir Robert Walpole, which he wrote for many years in conjunction with lord Bolingbroke, Mr. Pulteney, and many other leaders of the oppoſition, who having availed themſelves of his abilities, left him to ſtarve. Lord Cheſterfield ſays, that the utmoſt of Pulteney's generoſity to Amhurſt was a hogſhead of claret. He died of a broken heart, and was buried at the charge of his printer, Richard Franklin. 'The ingratitude of the great,' ſays an eminent biographer, 'to the ingenious perſons whom they make uſe of as the inſtruments of their ambition, ſhould furniſh an inſtruction to men of abilities in future times; and engage them to build their happineſs on the foundation of their own perſonal integrity, diſcretion, and virtue.'

RE-

REMARKS *during a* SIX WEEKS RESIDENCE *in* OXFORDSHIRE *and* GLOUCESTERSHIRE, *in* 1792: *In a Series of Letters to a Friend.*

LETTER XI and LAST.

Richmond, Sept. 1792.

DEAR SIR,

YOU will perceive, by the date of this letter, that I have left the hoſpitable family of our friend at Glouceſter. I did intend to have made a longer ſtay; but certain occurrences, at home, rendered my return more neceſſary than I expected it would have been. In addition to what I have written, I find but few memorandums in my travelling book; the few that remain will cloſe our correſpondence for the preſent. I have exchanged the bolder ſcenery of the weſt, for the mild and placid beauties of Richmond Hill, on which I now write.

I perceive that I have quitted Glouceſterſhire without mentioning what has been, and perhaps yet is, the ſtaple manufacture of the county; I mean woollen cloth, which is manufactured there, in vaſt quantities, both for home and foreign conſumption. Fifty thouſand cloths, or pieces, are ſuppoſed to be made annually at Durſley, Wootton, Painſwick, Minchin-Hampton, and the neighbourhood; a track of ground, which is called the Clothing Country, and preſents one of the moſt pleaſing objects of the many pleaſing ones this county abounds in. Theſe cloths are white, and are manufactured for the Turkey and India trade, and the army. This manufacture was anciently carried on in the city of Glouceſter; but the city loſt it about 150 years ago, when it was removed to the places I have mentioned, where there is plenty of water for driving the fulling-mills, and ſcouring the wool in little rivulets. The groſs yearly value of the wool manufactured in the whole kingdom is ſtated at two millions ſterling, of which a fourth part is ſaid to be executed in Glouceſterſhire. Yorkſhire is a great rival to this county, and, ſome allege, with ſucceſs. Although the greateſt part of theſe cloths are dyed in London, yet the water near Stroud is peculiarly fitted for the dying of ſcarlet, and many of the moſt eminent clothiers reſide near it. Their manſions, which are often ſpacious and elegant, and their manufactories ſpreading over a country naturally pictureſque, afford the moſt pleaſing proſpect of induſtrious buſtle. Many of theſe clothiers have amaſſed fortunes from twenty to fifty thouſand pounds, and ſome of them are men of great abilities in their buſineſs, and of liberal and well-cultivated minds. The population of this part of the country, and the conſequent improvement of the land, roads, &c. has been entirely owing to the introduction of the cloth manufactory. One gentleman aſſured me, that the common eſtimate of the yearly value of this manufacture, which I have given above, is greatly over-rated; and that the decline is owing to the loſs of the Levant trade. Others are of opinion, that new markets have been found abroad, to compenſate for this loſs.

The breed of ſheep, which furniſh the wool, has been the ſame, time immemorial. They are middle-ſized, fuller behind and lighter forward than others, and are long-wooled. Leiceſterſhire rams have lately been introduced among them, which will alter the breed. The comparative merits of the Leiceſterſhire and Cotſwold breeds, have long been a ſubject of diſpute and proper rivalſhip. Upon what ſubjects can men contend with more juſtifiable zeal? A wager is now pending, the terms of which are; a Mr. Moore agreed to ſend five ſhear hogs of the Leiceſterſhire, and Mr. Peacy five of the ſame age, of the Cotſwold, with a ſmall croſs of the Leiceſterſhire in them, to John Billingſley, eſq. of Aſhwick Grove; they

they are to be weighed when ſettled to their paſture, kept together exactly alike, and again weighed previous to the next December meeting of the Bath Agriculture Society; then to be ſlaughtered, and the carcaſes exhibited for the inſpection of the ſociety: the ſheep that gain moſt weight during the time of trial, and whoſe wool is the moſt valuable, are to be deemed the beſt, and to win the wager *.

Wool has been for many ages a copious ſource of induſtry and wealth to this nation; and ſo obvious are its advantages, that we have not allowed it to degenerate in the proportion that we have neglected ſome other valuable articles. Writers are not agreed as to the place whence ſheep were originally imported into this country. If the weſtern part of the kingdom was peopled from Spain, which is the opinion of ſome authors, it is natural to think they brought the ſheep with them, eſpecially as the breed of the Iriſh ſheep is the ſame with that of this iſland; and it is almoſt a certainty, that Ireland was peopled from Spain. Be this as it may, it is certain that wool was a ſtaple commodity of this country before the time of Richard I, whoſe ranſom was partly paid in wool. Being the principal commodity of this country, we are not to wonder, that wool and woollen manufactures have always been the objects of attention to government. In queen Eliſabeth's time, the exportation of woollen cloths, of different ſorts, was ſo increaſed, as to amount to a million and a half yearly. This was done, in that and the ſubſequent reign, by prohibiting the exportation of the wool, which ſecured to us all the advantages of the manufacture. In the employment of a variety of hands, no manufacture can exceed this. From the wool-grower to the conſumer, a piece of broad cloth paſſes through one hundred different hands. Here we have another inſtance of the utility of the diviſion of labour. It is thought there are nearly the ſame number of trades dependent on the woollen manufacture, though not actually concerned in it.

In my former letters I have often taken notice of the many extenſive proſpects which the county of Glouceſter affords. Few, indeed, afford more or better, ſince the greater part of them extend over a vale of vaſt richneſs and variety. There is one from Aldmonſbury, on the road leading from Briſtol to Glouceſter, which is particularly noble. From Barrow Hill, in the pariſh of Arlingham, about thirteen miles from Glouceſter, thirty-ſix pariſh churches can be diſcerned on a clear day. Painſwick, ſix miles from Glouceſter, lies ſo high, as every where to command very extenſive views of the vale, and of the Severn, in its various windings, as well as of the Malvern Hills, and part of Shropſhire, Herefordſhire, and Monmouthſhire. From Matſon, the delightful ſeat of lord Sydney (and formerly of the facetious George Selwyn) about a mile and a half from Glouceſter, you may eaſily deſcry the ſpires of Tewkeſbury, Worceſter, and Cheltenham. Churchdown Hill, alſo, near Glouceſter, carries the eye over an amazing extent of country. On the top of this hill (corruptly called *Choſen Hill*) ſtands a church, of which there is the following tradition: it was intended to be built at the bottom of the hill (a ſituation certainly more convenient) but the devil came in the night, and removed the ſtones to the top, placing them in the regular order in which he found them placed by the builder. Why the devil ſhould be ſo deſirous of building a *viſible church*, I know not. If we are to believe all we hear, he certainly was, in former days, a very active intermeddler in ſuch affairs. What he does now ſeem to be by *agents!*

We ſet off the day before yeſterday for Oxford, which we reached in a few hours, without meeting with any occurrence worthy of notice. Next day we ſet out by the way of Nune-

* This wager was afterward determined in favour of Mr. Peacy.

ham

ham Courtnay, of which I have already ſaid ſo much *, to Dorcheſter, where we breakfaſted. This is a place of great antiquity. It was a biſhopric from the year 625 to 949; and I have a liſt of its prelates now before me, not one of whom, however, exiſt unleſs in name. Even the indefatigable Godwin can tell you no more. In the window of the only church now remaining, is a repreſentation of Berinus, the firſt biſhop, baptiſing king Kenewalch. Other remains of antiquity are to be ſeen in this ſmall town; whence we proceeded through Benſington, or Benſon, and Nettlebed, places of little note, to Henley, one of the moſt pleaſant towns ſituated on the Thames, and a place of conſiderable trade and buſtle. What recommends it ſtill more to the traveller, is the beautiful ſcenery around it. The new ſtone bridge is ornamented by two ſculptured heads, one of Iſis, the other of Thames, both executed by the ingenious Mrs. Damer. General Conway's, lady Taylor's, and Mr. Freeman's ſeats, afford a rich treat to the eye.

Our next ſtage was Maidenhead, or Maidenhithe, a place of great reſort to gentlemen-anglers. Its trade is very conſiderable in meal, malt, and timber. The town has a neat, clean appearance. Many of the houſes are very elegant, and ſome gentlemen appear to have very lately choſen ſituations for building near it. The erection of the bridge has made this place what it is. The inns here, as upon the whole of the weſtern road, that is the Bath and Briſtol road, are of the beſt kind. Let not your gravity be diſcompoſed by a remark upon inns. *I* can be content with little as well as you; but let us have that little *good*. And mark! Sir, by what high authority I often have, and always ſhall obſerve, the ſtate of inns upon the public roads of a country: no leſs authority, than the venerable dean Joſiah Tucker.

'Let the traveller,' ſays he, 'obſerve the condition of the public inns on the great roads; for they are a kind of pulſe, by which you may diſcover the riches or poverty of a country. If, therefore, you find them in a flouriſhing ſtate, you may depend upon it, that many paſſengers frequent that road; and the frequency of paſſing and repaſſing is a ſure proof, that buſineſs of ſome kind or other is going forward.'—It is, I believe, a fact, that the beſt inns are to be found where this paſſing and repaſſing takes place; that is, where commercial intercourſe is moſt intimate.

I have little elſe to ſay reſpecting the remainder of our journey to this place. The road is well known to you, and I have obſerved nothing which has not occurred to your own notice. And here I end my labours in your ſervice. How you have been entertained, or whether you have been entertained or not, are queſtions which we may chance to diſcuſs, when we get old, and learn to tell truth to each other. I am more than ſuſpicious, that I have not been able to impart to you much of the pleaſure I have myſelf received in this ſhort excurſion. The number of thoſe who can ſo deſcribe viſible objects, as to bring the eye of the reader in contact with their own, is ſmall, and I am far, very far from pretending to be one of them. The *mores multorum hominum* was my principal object, and the manners of the people of this country are yet ſufficiently diverſified to afford much gratification to curioſity and much ſcope for obſervation. With objects of taſte and of ſenſe, we are ſoon ſatisfied, and their impreſſion is periſhable. But objects of reflection, bring ſome acceſſion to our ſtock of wiſdom; and he who has contemplated the quiet and ſtill progreſs of rural life, will not be the worſe man if he brings the remembrance of it into the gay and buſtling metropolis.

I have only to add that, I am, with truth and ſincerity, yours, &c.

* See Letter IV, in our Magazine for December 1793, and an account of the Spinning Feaſt at Nuneham, in our laſt Number, page 18.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, July 1794.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,89	61	66	52	4	WNW 1	
	2	29,95	76	69,5	50	3	NW 1	
2	7	30,10	61	66	50	1	NW 1	hazy
	2	30,10	76	70,5	46	3	NNW 1	little rain
3	7	30,09	66	69	52	4	W 1	
	2	30,09	76	71	50	3	WNW 1	
4	7	30,18	61,5	67,5	48	1	N 1	
	2	30,21	77,5	71,5	46	2	SE 1	wind E
5	7	30,16	61,5	64,5	50	1	E 1	hazy
	2	30,13	71	74,5	43	1	E 1	
6	7	29,98	65	68	53	1	E 2	
	2	29,86	80	73	45	2	E 3	calm eve and distant thunder, much light-
7	7	29,83	68,5	71	53,5	3	N 1	ning: little rain
	2	29,89	81	75,5	47	2	WNW 1	
8	7	30,08	62,5	70,5	48	1	WNW 1	
	2	30,08	77	73	44,5	1	SW 1	
9	7	30,21	67	70,5	50	1	N 1	
	2	30,22	79,5	74,5	45	3	N 1	
10	7	30,29	64,5	69	50,5	5	NE 1	less cloudy
	2	30,26	72	71	48	4	E 2	clear night
11	7	30,10	63,5	68	50	1	ENE 1	
	2	30,06	76	72,5	44,5	2	ENE 1	
12	7	30,03	63,5	68	48,5	1	ENE 1	
F	2	29,94	75	71	44	1	E 2	
13	7	29,90	63,5	68,5	50	1	E 1	
	2	29,81	81,5	73,5	46	1	SW 1	
14	7	29,96	62,5	69,5	48	1	W 1	
	2	30,04	75,5	72	44	3	W 1	hazy night
15	7	30,08	62,5	68,5	49	2	SW 1	more cloudy
	2	30,07	72,5	70	44	3	SW 1	cloudy night
16	7	30,03	65	69	50	4	SW 2	gentle ſhowers
	2	30,02	72,5	70	49,5	4	SSW 2	
17	7	30,00	62	68	50,5	3	SW 1	hazy
	2	30,02	75	70	45	3	SW 1	hazy
18	7	30,02	70	67,5	50,5	4	SW 1	hazy, wind SE and little wet
	2	30,02	77	74	47,5	4	N 1	
19	7	29,97	67,5	71,5	53	2	N 1	
	2	29,89	78	74	47,5	2	SW 1	
20	7	29,80	63	70	49,5	2	SW 1	
	2	29,75	76,5	74,5	45,5	3	SW 2	
21	7	29,82	60	68,5	46	2	SW 3	
	2	29,88	70,5	69,5	40,5	3	W 3	
22	7	29,87	60,5	66	46	4	SW 2	little wet. fine
	2	29,79	72,5	68	44	3	S 2	
23	7	29,60	66,5	68	50,5	3	SSW 2	little rain
	2	29,57	70	69	45	4	S 3	more wind and little rain at times
24	7	29,45	62	65,5	51	5	WSW 3	little rain. heavy ſhower. fine
	2	29,56	71,5	69	47	3	WSW 2	cloudy. fine
25	7	29,82	57	64	47	1	W 1	cloudy
	2	29,86	67,5	67,5	43	5	SSW 2	rain. fair
26	7	29,81	59	65	50,5	5	SW 1	little rain. chiefly fine
N	2	29,78	70	68	49	4	SSW 2	chiefly cloudy
27	7	29,87	60	66	50	5	WSW 1	fine at times
	2	29,88	68,5	69	46	4	WSW 1	much gentle rain
28	7	29,88	61,5	66	51	5	WSW 1	fine
	2	29,85	70	68	50	3	WSW 1	
29	7	29,86	63	68	52	4	WSW 1	
	2	29,87	76	70	50	4	SW 1	
30	7	29,87	66,5	70	53,5	3	SW 1	hazy
	2	29,85	78,5	72	49	3	W 1	
31	7	29,85	65	70	52	5	W 1	less cloudy
	2	29,84	74	71,5	48,5	4	W 1	

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* July 1794.

COMPLAINTS in the bowels increaſed in frequency, and were not ſo readily relieved as before; ſimple diarrhœa occaſionally degenerated into dyſentery, accompanied by bloody ſtools, and fever, its uſual ſymptoms. *Cholera morbus* was likewiſe frequent, and the vomitings were generally of a greeniſh colour, occaſioned evidently by bile mixed with an acid; the diſeaſe was removed by aſſiſting the efforts of nature to evacuate the offending matter. Early in the month a fever, attended with ſome danger, began to prevail; its attack was with chilline's, and the uſual ſymptoms; on the ſecond or third day, the fauces became red and inflamed, without any conſiderable enlargement, large ſecretions of acrid matter into the firſt paſſages took place, which produced highly fetid evacuations from the inteſtines; the urine was turbid, high-coloured, and in ſmall quantity; the thirſt was conſiderable, the tongue not very dry or brown, but covered with a whitiſh cruſt; a general tendency to coſtiveneſs prevailed, which, if permitted to go on, produced delirium from an abſorption of the acrid matter contained in the bowels, and the pulſe were feeble and frequent; about the fifth day a remiſſion took place, the heat decreaſed, and fever gradually abated without any very evident criſis: when the fever abated, ulcerations in the mouth frequently occurred; they were accompanied with a large ſecretion of ſaliva, which proved very troubleſome: purgatives were freely adminiſtered throughout the diſeaſe with very evident advantage, large doſes of antimonials, drinking plentifully of water or other weak liquors acidulated by vitriolic acid, or fruit, proved very uſeful; bliſtering was rarely needful, but admitting air freely, and expoſing the ſick to its action was very neceſſary, as alſo taking them occaſionally out of bed and keeping them up for a ſhort time; bark, even toward the termination of the diſeaſe, ſeemed to prove prejudicial, it increaſed heat and thirſt, and the tendency to coſtiveneſs. Rheumatic fever was frequent; it was confined to the young and robuſt, and was generally the conſequence of imprudence; large bleedings of courſe became neceſſary to the removal of the diſeaſe, which was ſeldom of long duration. Meaſles and ſcarlet fever were occaſionally met with, but with no remarkable ſymptoms.

ON PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS.

IT has been lately the faſhion to cry up public amuſements from the *good* effects they produce upon the minds of the people. Theſe effects, however, have been ſtated in a way ſo general, that we may, without being over-ſcrupulous, in the firſt place, doubt whether the effect of public amuſements be *general*, and ſecondly, whether it be *good*. When certain effects are produced upon the public mind, we are often apt to aſcribe them to cauſes, which either were not ſufficient to produce them, or, in fact, had no ſhare whatever in the production of them. There are many reaſons, in my humble opinion, for thinking that the effect of public amuſements upon national manners is very trifling; and there are ſome which will juſtify us in ſuppoſing that that effect is not always of the beneficial kind.

In the firſt place, public amuſements, in order to produce a general determinate effect, muſt be more ſimilar to each other than they are in reality. In order to produce an effect, the ſeveral parts of any machine muſt not pull different ways. But our public amuſements are extremely different in their reſpective effects,

and conſequently cannot be ſuppoſed to act together as the united cauſe of of any one effect. What connexion has the Italian with the Engliſh drama, or the latter with the various ſpecies of public amuſements which, though ranked as of an inferior claſs, attract the greateſt number of the people, and conſequently muſt produce the greateſt effect upon the general maſs? What effect has the Italian opera produced upon the higher orders of ſociety; the Engliſh drama upon the middling ranks; and the riding ſchools and burleſque exhibitions upon the loweſt claſſes? How have theſe operated conjointly or ſingly upon the manners of the nation? We are told they have an effect. What is that effect?

To this queſtion, I can find no anſwer that ſatisfies me; becauſe when I am told that the effect produced is good, I aſk *how?* Are the people more induſtrious, ſober, regular, beneficent, charitable, patriotic, loyal, humane, or *what?* In which of all theſe reſpects are they improved? In truth, I am inclined to doubt the *good* effect of public amuſements, becauſe no perſon who has written upon the ſubject, has been pleaſed to ſpecify in what reſpects the good is produced, and becauſe I am unable to trace it in common life.

But there is one reaſon for thinking that they produce little or no effect at all, which merits conſideration. In order to produce an effect upon the mind either of the individual or the public, the cauſes muſt be continued, and the application inceſſant. Is this the caſe with public amuſements? How many of the people are there who viſit a public place above once or twice in a ſeaſon, and that at long intervals? The truth is, there are not five thouſand perſons in the whole kingdom, to whom this is otherwiſe. What magic muſt there be in any public amuſement which produces its effect at ſo few applications! It will not ſurely be ſaid that they reſemble the medicines of certain quacks, of which 'one doſe will produce a cure.' The maſs of a nation is a mighty machine, not to be moved by a touch, by merely applying our ſtrength once or twice to it; but by perſiſting in our labour, never loſing ſight of our difficulties, and overcoming them only by conſtancy of effort. All the changes in the manners of a nation, tracing them hiſtorically, commencing with the moſt barbarous and dark ages, have been extremely ſlow and imperceptible. The tranſition from rudeneſs to politeneſs, from ſavage ferocity to refinement and civilization, is ſurely not quick. It has taken ſeven centuries to make Great Britain what ſhe is in point of civilization, if we date from the earlieſt accounts we have of the Britons; and ſhall we ſay that there is any one cauſe that has produced the change? Or ſhall we ſay that we ought to continue that cauſe until we arrive at a yet higher degree of civil perfection? Yes, if we knew what that cauſe was; but, in truth, the preſent ſtate of the nation is owing to a combination of cauſes, of which we can only diſtinctly perceive two, religion and learning. Yet there have been periods when even theſe were obſcured, and ineffectual, and when the progreſs of reaſon and urbanity ſeemed to be ſtationary.

If then, it is no ſmall matter which can produce an effect upon the public mind, we ſurely cannot be of opinion that amuſements to which the maſs of the people reſort ſeldom, and which are but ſeldom ſeen for any continuance, unleſs in the metropolis, can be of ſo much importance in a national light. The manager of one of the theatres in the metropolis informed me lately, that a new play, which draws good houſes for fifteen nights, has exhauſted the play-going part of the metropolis, and that its ſucceſs afterward muſt depend upon its attractions to induce people to go a ſecond time.

But allowing that public amuſements do produce an effect, it remains

mains to be considered whether that effect is a *good* one. There are some reasons for thinking that the general effect is not of the beneficial kind.

In the first place, the very constitution of a public amusement is adverse to the supposition, that it is calculated to do good. Because, it is entirely under the control and command of those who are to be benefited, and because it always reflects public manners in such a way as to avoid giving offence. Whoever has been a frequent spectator at public amusements must have observed, that the author of the drama, supposing it to be a drama, must write *to* the passions and prejudices of his audience, and never *against* them, unless he can venture to play good humouredly with some folly in which the majority are not interested. Now, if in the conveyance of reproof and instruction, it be just and proper that the scholar should not be above his master, we shall be able to guess how far the managers of public amusements can venture in turning the public mind. In fact, so servile are they, and so attentive to the public whim, that they make it a point to catch and enter into the spirit of the prejudice of the day, and are loyal or patriotic, tragic or comic, just as they find the people in the humour. A manager who would endeavour to stem the current of popular prejudice, would soon be convinced 'by a beggarly account of empty boxes,' that he had wholly mistaken the purpose of his vocation.

A priori, therefore, it does not appear that a public amusement, from the very constitution of it, is calculated to amend the public mind, whose prejudices must be attended to, and either fostered, or passed by as dangerous to meddle with. But these are other considerations which confirm this opinion in no small degree.

One of these is, the general odium under which persons concerned in public amusements lie. Whether this be just, or not, I leave to be determined by others. The fact is, however, that the most constant *amateur* of the drama, would shrink from the idea of any private family connexion with an actor, and would consider his sister or daughter as utterly ruined, if they married with a professional man. If it be said that this prejudice is less prevalent now than it has been, it must be allowed, on the other hand, that it is yet sufficiently so for the purposes of my argument. Now, let us observe the wonderful consistency of frequenting an amusement, for the purpose of meliorating our heads and hearts, and yet banishing from our presence, our esteem and our confidence, the men who produce an effect so salutary. What! shall we say that the drama has mended public morals, or has produced a good effect upon the minds of mankind, and at the same time, shall we consider the immediate causes of this effect, the actors, men who 'have gladdened life,' as among the refuse of the world, not fit to be associated with? We certainly do not consider *other* public instructors in this degrading light. We venerate the clergy, and the learned professors and tutors of our universities and schools. Why? Because we are fully convinced that they *do* produce an actual good, and 'diffuse the benefits of learning, and the blessings of religion;' whereas, we say, and say at random, that public amusements have produced good; somebody has told us so; we *like* public amusements, and are glad of an excuse for encouraging them, and go on repeating the same thing without any enquiry into the truth.

I have said that this dislike of players, and love of plays, are inconsistent, but I do not mean to enquire whether it be just, nor to ask (although there is nothing unfair in the question) why a buffoon should in a few years realize a fortune, which would render twenty men of genius, learning, and usefulness, happy and comfortable for life.

It may be ſufficient to ſay, that this inequality in the diſtribution of the rewards of merit cannot be ranked among the *good* effects produced on the public mind by amuſements.

Were I to enter into the merit of thoſe amuſements, and the tendency they are *likely* to produce on the mind, I am afraid I ſhould be able to draw concluſions unfavourable to them, which might have the appearance of puritanical ſtrictneſs, and perhaps of illnature. I am willing to allow, that public decency is better preſerved now than formerly. But we do not owe that to the perſons concerned in providing entertainment for the public. We owe it to one man, to Jeremy Collier, who, I will allow with Dr. Johnſon, was 'a fierce and implacable Nonjuror,' but as the ſame author remarks, it was from him that 'the wiſe and pious caught the alarm, and the nation wondered why it had ſo long ſuffered irreligion and lincentiouſneſs to be openly taught at the public charge.' The reformation he effected was complete, yet I doubt whether it might not be very eaſy *now*, to ſelect paſſages from moſt of our modern plays, which are tolerated and applauded on the ſtage, although they would be accounted highly indecent and inſulting in private company. For the broad licentiouſneſs of the laſt century, we have ſubſtituted the *double-entendre*, a ſpecies of indecency the more inſulting, that it ſuppoſes all to be acquainted with what is pretended to be concealed.

Beſide the nature of the amuſements themſelves, in conſidering which I have chiefly had an eye to the theatre, we may throw ſome light upon the queſtion, by looking at the characters of thoſe who are the principal frequenters of public places. I grant they are of that deſcription to whom reformation is moſt neceſſary; but do they acquire it? Are their manners more decent, orderly, and becoming? Do they evince any improvement of head or heart? Are they the very perſons whom we ſhould ſuſpect of being eager to go to any place for the purpoſe of inſtruction or improvement? I truſt, I need not anſwer theſe queſtions.

As I have never yet poſitively denied that public amuſements have an effect, I am now at liberty to add that they have the effect exactly pointed out by their name. They are *amuſements*; they divert an idle hour in a very agreeable manner; but diverſion is the oppoſite of inſtruction. It is when we are tired of inſtruction, of labour, and of ſtudy, that we ſeek to be amuſed, and we are beſt amuſed by that which requires the leaſt ſtretch of thought and application. In this view only, can public amuſements be uſeful. In the preſent ſtate of things, it would be neither wiſe nor prudent to abridge their number. It is only to be regretted that there are ſo many circumſtances attending them, which are of a pernicious nature. Every lover of decency, who frequents the public amuſements of the metropolis, muſt be ſenſible of this. It is not too much to ſay, that they are the marts of proſtitution, and that many thouſands of young men may trace their ruin, to the company they have met there. Until ſome remedy is found for this, we muſt doubt of the good effect produced by public amuſements; for *if* good effect was the natural and common effect of them, ſhould we find them crowded, as they too often are, by the moſt worthleſs and abandoned of both ſexes? I ſhould humbly *think not*; becauſe I cannot find that this is the caſe with any places of real inſtruction; and becauſe it is not natural to think that thoſe who live by the wages of ſin, will give them in return for the benefits of reformation.

M. M.

On

On a PROPER ESTIMATE *of* HUMAN CHARACTER.

'One ſophiſm by which men perſuade themſelves that they have thoſe virtues which they really want, is formed by the ſubſtitution of ſingle acts for habits.' JOHNSON.

IT is avowedly difficult to judge of ourſelves or of other men, but which of the two is moſt ſo, has not yet been agreed upon. With reſpect to ourſelves, we ſeldom ſpeak exactly the truth, becauſe we ſeldom know how. With reſpect to others, it is a fact, that if we were aſked why we love or hate, we ſhould often be puzzled to give an anſwer. Some part of this latter difficulty ariſes, in my opinion, from the uſe of common terms which we do not ſufficiently underſtand, or which have a flimſy common meaning, about which no two men are agreed, although they may ſeem to communicate ideas to one another. I need only, as an example, mention the word *honeſt*. Honeſty is one of the moſt popular virtues, but no man goes to his dictionary for the meaning of it. No man wiſhes to refer to any common ſtandard, round which thoſe who uſe the word may range themſelves. It is one thing upon 'change, another thing among men in private life, and nothing at all among men of pleaſure and faſhion. One thinks that an honeſt man is that man who keeps ſtrictly within the *letter* of the law in his dealings; another wiſhes to combine the *ſpirit* of the law in the character; and a third would ſuperadd a certain quantity of generoſity as a neceſſary embelliſhment. Scarcely more agreed are we about the word *good*. A good man, with ſome, is a man capable of paying his debts; with others, he is a man of pious habits and actions; and ſome apply the epithet to a man who does not decline drinking with the ſtouteſt of his company! A ſtateſman looks upon *him* to be a good man, whoſe vote he can always depend upon; while a tradeſman has no more exalted opinion of a good man than that he is one whoſe paper the bank will readily diſcount. In like manner, a good *book* is either a book that is upon a religious ſubject, or that treats its ſubject well, or that ſells well, according as it happens to be termed good by a religious perſon, a critic, or a bookſeller. It would certainly be deſirable that the ſame word ſhould not poſſeſs ſo many meanings, both for the ſake of language and of common ſenſe.

Some part, therefore, of the difficulty of judging of human characters, may ariſe from a confuſion in the acceptation of words of common uſe. But the learned author from whom I have ſelected a motto to this paper, appears to me to have hit upon the principal cauſe of the difficulty, namely our 'ſubſtituting ſingle actions for habits.' This, he ſpeaks of in the caſe of ourſelves; but all muſt be ſenſible that it will apply with equal propriety to the caſe of others. A ſingle action very rarely conſtitutes a character. I ſay very rarely; for there are, in the hiſtory of ſome men, certain ſingle actions ſo very prominent and deſcriptive of the whole, that we cannot be greatly deceived if we take our opinion from them. Such perhaps might be the continence of Scipio, and a few other dazzling and brilliant actions brought forward in the hiſtory of ancient heroes, legiſlators, and philoſophers. But yet, allowing the full force of veracity to ſuch accounts (and we have no reaſon to doubt them) can we take upon us to decide upon man, that *varium & mutabile animal*, that inconſiſtent and mutable animal, from one ſingle action only, and that action completely *inſulated*, by our want of information reſpecting the reſt of his life? Certainly we cannot, if we will but attend to what

paſſes

paſſes before our eyes every day. Suppoſe we have juſt ſeen a young man viſit a family languiſhing in poverty and diſtreſs, and beſtow upon them a purſe of money containing his all; and ſuppoſe he does this without oſtentation, and in imitation of thoſe who 'do good by ſtealth, and bluſh to find it fame;' what opinion do we form of him? We certainly cannot but ſay that he is a noble-minded, generous, and benevolent youth. As ſuch he ſtands in our opinion. But then we know no other action of his life; 'and,' ſays ſome ſanguine lover of virtue, in the honeſt enthuſiaſm of his heart, 'I want to know no other; that action alone conſtitutes the character.'—Does it? Look a little farther; the money now given was won by unfair means at the gaming-table, and it is intended to be part of the price of the ruin of that young woman whoſe family he has relieved by it.—'Indeed! Oh! that alters the caſe. From that action alone I pronounce him to be the moſt abandoned villain that ever breathed.'—Not that neither. He has good principles, but he has kept company with men who have lulled them to ſleep for a time. He is not conſcious that the means by which he won the mony were unfair, and as to the purpoſe to which he applies it, his paſſions have obtained the maſtery over him. Succeſs will render him wretched, and he will be the firſt to repent.

No one good or bad action can poſſibly conſtitute a whole character; for an action can only deſcribe the ſentiment of the moment. If it be, indeed, one of thoſe deliberate proceſſes which require time, and preparation, and much thinking, according as it ends well or ill, we may judge of the character. The law of England, which is founded upon the ſureſt and moſt immutable principles of truth and juſtice, will aſſiſt us here. A man who, after due, and perhaps long, preparation, comes into a court to ſwear falſely, is for ever accounted a diſhoneſt man. His evidence is no longer to be accepted in any caſe; he cannot carry on trade, becauſe he cannot ſue for a juſt debt; and he is for ever deprived of the rights of a citizen. All this is juſt and fair, becauſe here was no ſudden impulſe of the moment, none of thoſe ſudden temptations which may ſucceſsfully aſſail the beſt of men when off their guard, but a deliberate ſeries of thinking and meditation, of cunning and projection, all ending in the moſt infamous of crimes. The head and heart muſt have here combined, and the party is totally left without excuſe, either before God or man. But, although we muſt always be on our guard againſt ſuch a man, and ought, upon the principle of ſelf-defence, always to keep in mind the crime he has committed, does it follow that we have the whole of his character united in this one action? He was, perhaps, prompted by avarice or revenge, to commit this crime; and does it follow that we are to take a retroſpect of his former life, and pronounce that all was bad *before*, or look forward, and decide that all muſt be bad, *after* the commiſſion of the crime? No, we are not juſtified in this, either by a proper knowledge of human character, nor by the laws of mercy. May not this man have been, and ſtill continue to be, a uſeful member of ſociety, an affectionate father, huſband or friend? May he not repent, and, on repentance, make ſuch atonement as the moſt rigid laws of ſociety require? The ſtrict letter of the law very properly refuſes to ſuppoſe all this; but it is nor for *us* to ſhut the gates of mercy, and for one action, however deliberate, to condemn the criminal to a perpetuity of wickedneſs, although it muſt be confeſſed that the crime alluded to, includes in it circumſtances more complexly atrocious than perhaps any other.

If it be true that no one bad action can conſtitute a character, it is certainly fully as true, or more ſo, that no good action can decide a character. Good actions, or thoſe we term ſo,

are, in general, ſo eaſily performed, and ſo often take the form of incumbent duties, that we cannot allow them their full weight, without combining other circumſtances with them. Generoſity, as I have already hinted, is very apt to be miſtaken, and, indeed, it is difficult to ſay where it begins; where the *duty* of charity ends and generoſity commences; and where the latter paſſes into the other extreme, prodigality. To judge of a man's whole character from the freedom with which he circulates his wealth, would not be eaſy, if we were to attempt it, and would be very abſurd, if we were to ſucceed. Generoſity, or benevolence, muſt be joined with other circumſtances of rectitude and wiſdom, before it can deſerve the name of virtue. Let us compare the benevolence of a rake, with that of a good man, and we ſhall be ſenſible of the neceſſity of ſtating a difference. I will ſuppoſe that both are actuated by the ſame motive, and have equal pleaſure in the deed; but the former, the rake, while he is gratifying a benevolent paſſion with one half of his money, is preparing to gratify a licentious one with the other, which will create more miſery than in the other caſe he has been able to confer happineſs. It is far otherwiſe with the good man; he adds to the ſum of human happineſs, but not that he may have a pretence to draw upon it for the ſupply of his vices. He offers no bribe to virtue, and purchaſes no licence to do evil.

Beſides, there are ſo many motives to good actions, as well as bad, independent of the general ſentiment, which runs through a man's character, that we cannot be too cautious of beſtowing the honours of eſteem, or the puniſhment of cenſure, for any one action. The life of no man, ever ſo profligate, is an uninterrupted ſeries of evil; and although we ought to make no account of that alloy of imperfection which is in the characters of good men, ſo as to decide againſt them, neither are we to think or pronounce them good men for one or two, or more inſulated actions; actions ſtanding by themſelves, independent of all others, and the cauſes, motives, and conſequences of which we are ignorant of.

In eſtimating characters, let us conſider how much of human life may be ſaid to ſtand ſtill, and how little we can gather of information or inſight into character from the ſmooth, even, mechanical operations of men in common life. The actions that ſtrongly mark a character, thoſe energies which prompt a man to burſt the bands of obſcurity, that enthuſiaſm which dignifies virtue by giving it activity and uſefulneſs, occur but ſeldom. When they do, we are not to take them ſingly; we muſt combine and compare them, be ſure that they proceed from one ſource, from a well-organized mind, from a *habitual propenſity* to goodneſs. Then, indeed, we have the beſt documents to enable us to judge of a character, that is, the beſt which human ſagacity can reach, for in all characters there muſt be ſomething inſcrutable, ſomething known only to the mind and to its Maker.

Another circumſtance which dictates caution is, the poſſibility of a man being ſo infatuated at laſt, as to perform ſome action which may ſully the luſtre of all thoſe which have preceded. In fact, all our obſervation, ever ſo attentive, comes but to this, that we are only collecting hints and documents for the eſtabliſhment of a character. It was a juſt maxim of the ancients, *Nemo ante obitum beatus dici poteſt.*—No man ought to be called happy on this ſide the grave. It is equally true, that the character of no man can be fairly decided, until life is concluded, and human virtue and frailty have ceaſed to operate. Then we may decide from what we have learned, and what we have obſerved; and I hope that all thoſe, whoſe province it is to delineate the characters of men eminent in their generation, will conſider how neceſſary impartiality

ality is. Biographers have already got over the ſilly maxim of 'never ſpeaking ill of the dead,' and have ſubſtituted a much better one, 'to ſpeak of them as they were.' By the bye, it is not eaſy to conceive how the maxim 'of never ſpeaking ill of the dead,' could ever ſeriouſly prevail. Falſe humanity muſt be very predominant in him, who will confound truth and falſehood in compliment to one who cannot be affected by either, and whoſe life, if written at all, muſt be for an example to others.

Many have ſuppoſed, that upon account of the operation of ſelf-conceit, it is much eaſier to judge impartially of the character of another, than of one's-ſelf. And this is true in a certain degree. It is true, with reſpect to all which we can ſee of another perſon, which is confeſſedly very little. We ſeldom ſee enough of any perſon to enable us to decide upon his general character, and we may be very much miſtaken in the little we do ſee. In all actions, it is the motive which conſtitutes the praiſe or blame, and motives generally lie too deep for the inſpection of a ſtranger. Intention, in moſt caſes, conſtitutes the crime, and who ſhall judge of intention; who ſhall judge of that which lies between a man and his own conſcience, and which he often does, and may at all times conceal? The more we conſider the faculty of judging human characters by external acts, the more do difficulties multiply upon us; and the natural inference to be drawn from this, is, that in giving our opinions of other men, we ought to lean, in every caſe, toward the ſide of mercy, and preſerve the true ſpirit of candour.

Very different, it muſt be regretted, is the general practice. There is ſcarcely any ſubject upon which people talk ſo looſely, and with ſo little foundation, as the character of their neighbours. This circumſtance, it is well known, has given riſe to more reflections of the moral and ſatirical kind, than almoſt any other, but with very little effect. A ſtrict regard to truth is a duty, the neceſſity and propriety of which need not be ſeriouſly proved: we aſſent to the value and importance of truth, the moment the idea is ſuggeſted. But it is to no purpoſe that we approve of general principles, without we carry them into practice. It is to no purpoſe that a man profeſſes his belief, without ſhowing how it influences his actions.

I have no doubt that the great caution employed in courts of juſtice, in the protection of character, ariſes from its being well known, that very little caution is practiſed in common life, in caſes where character is concerned. In courts of law, a man is not allowed to tell what he has heard, but what he has ſeen and known. By this means we avoid all confuſion and defect of evidence. Of all ſpecies of evidence, that of *hearſay* is avowedly the leaſt to be depended on. Even in mere matters of fact, which do not reſpect character, we lean very little toward it; in hiſtorical detail, it is always guarded with ſome expreſſion of cautious doubtfulneſs; and, in law, it is never admitted at all. But, in common converſation, it is almoſt the only kind of evidence brought forward, with what juſtice, with what propriety, with what humanity, I leave to my readers to determine. Were thoſe who are in the habits of making moſt free with characters ſuddenly ſtopt in the midſt of their narrative, and ſeriouſly aſked whether they know the truth of what they were advancing, I firmly believe that ſome of the moſt entertaining companions of our tea-tables and convivial hours, would be ſtruck dumb.

As I have ſaid ſo much of the difficulty of knowing men's characters, it may be thought that I conſider this knowledge as impoſſible, or next to impoſſible. But this is very far from being the caſe. What I mean is, that we err in the firſt principles of the ſcience. In order to know the character

of another, I hold it to be abſolutely neceſſary that we ſhould know our own, if not perfectly, at leaſt ſo as to judge whether we are fully prepared to enter upon a ſcrutiny into the character of another. And this preparation conſiſts in our having diſcovered that we have no latent ſources of envy, ill-will, or diſcontent; that we not only are ſincere lovers of truth and candour, but that we are willing to employ them fairly, fully, and honeſtly, in our praiſe or cenſure. Praiſing a man who does not deſerve it, is not ſo criminal as the reverſe, but it is hurtful to ourſelves, as habituating us to make a falſe eſtimate of human actions; and we may injure others by leading them into an opinion, which may, in ſome caſe or other, at ſome time or other, prove prejudicial to their intereſts. Falſe and indiſcriminate cenſure, however, that general, looſe deciſion, which condemns the whole for the defect of a few parts, is moſt to be avoided, becauſe it is leaſt conſiſtent with humanity, candour, or truth. 'Who made thee a judge over another?' is an awful check to human pride, and ought ever to be uppermoſt in our thoughts when we are reduced to the painful neceſſity of appreciating the merits of another.

After having endeavoured to know ſomething of our own character, and being ſatisfied that there is no mixture of partiality or ill will, the beſt poſſible rule in judging of others, will be to take nothing for granted which we cannot prove, to allow no weight to probable conjecture, and, laſtly, never to judge of any man upon account of one or two actions of his life. The merit of a character is not to be determined by actions but by habits; and if it be allowed (which certainly is the caſe) that we muſt have a very long and intimate acquaintance with a man, before we can know his habits, it will follow, that we muſt condemn that raſh and precipitate, looſe and indiſcriminate, manner in which human characters are too often treated. If we know but of one or two actions of a man's life, and thoſe bad ones, we are juſtified in being cautious of truſting, or connecting ourſelves with ſuch a man, and we are juſtified in cautioning others, upon the ſame ground. But we cannot be ſaid to know that man's full character. Can all the merit or demerit of a man's life, can all his mind, ſpirit, and ſentiment, be crowded into one action?

Upon the whole, the ſophiſm mentioned in the motto of this paper deſerves our conſideration in more reſpects than one. It is highly proper to make the diſtinction between habits and ſingle acts; and, in order to make it with effect, it will be proper to begin with ourſelves. The action which we are conſcious proceeds from a ſudden impulſe, may be good, but that only which reſults from *habit* is deciſive of a character. That ſelf-knowledge is not eaſily acquired, I am very ſenſible, but until it is in ſome degree acquired, we ſhall make very ſmall progreſs in judging of others; and our deciſions will be juſt only by accident, if juſt at all, while our errors will be many, and we ſhall be continually ſubject to the diſgrace of reverſing our own judgments, and confeſſing our malice and our inability in the ſame breath.

C.

An HISTORICAL ACCOUNT *of the Iſland and Kingdom of* CORSICA.

THE iſland of Corſica, called by the French *Corſe*, is ſituated in the Mediterranean ſea, oppoſite the coaſt of Genoa, between 8° and 10° eaſt longitude, and 41° and 43° north latitude. On the ſouth, it is ſeparated from the iſland of Sardinia by the ſtrait of Bonifacio; to the eaſt, it has the Tuſcan Sea; to the north, the gulf of Genoa; and, to the weſt, the Mediterranean, oppoſite the coaſts of France and Spain. It is about 170

miles east of Toulon, 100 south of Genoa, and eighty south by west of Leghorn. It is 150 miles in length form north to south, and from forty to fifty in breadth. It is computed to be 322 miles in circumference; but an exact measurement round it would extend to 500 miles, it being bordered by many bays and promontories.

The ancient Greeks gave this island the name of Callista, and afterward that of Cyrnus; and to the Romans it was known by its present appellation. Inhabited, at first, by a colony of Phenicians, it was afterward occupied successively by the Phoceans, the Etruscans, and the Carthaginians. The Romans succeeded to the latter, and settled two colonies here *. On the destruction of the Roman empire, Corsica fell successively under the dominion of the Goths, the Greek emperors, the Lombards, and the Saracens; and the latter, it is supposed, first gave it the title of a kingdom †.

In the eighth century, Corsica was conquered by Charles Martel, who, at that period, without the title of king, was, in reality, the sovereign of France. By this celebrated chieftain, this island was presented to the Holy See, which, in the sequel, transferred the sovereignty to the Pisans, from whom it was wrested by their formidable rivals the Genoese. The latter treated the Corsicans with such an insupportable degree of tyranny, that they were frequently provoked to insurrection, but, for want of an able leader, were immediately subdued.

In 1553, Henry II, king of France, assisted by Solyman the Magnificent, emperor of the Turks, invaded the island, and were joined by the malecontent Corsicans. The French and Turks were, at first, so successful, that they conquered the greatest part of the island; but the exertions of Andrew Doria, the Genoese commander, who was powerfully assisted by the emperor Charles V, prevented their ultimate success; and the war was terminated by an accommodation, on terms very honourable to the Corsicans. It seemed, however, as it were impossible that this commercial republic should ever think of ruling their subject islanders by any maxims of wisdom, benevolence, and moderation. Repeated vexations excited repeated, but ineffectual insurrections. The Genoese, exasperated at what they had suffered from a daring rebellion, as they called it, long exercised, without controul, all the rigour of arbitrary power. Multitudes of the Corsicans were sent to the *gallies* for very slight offences; the most eminent families were deprived of the privileges of nobility; all foreign trade was prohibited to the natives, nothing being permitted to be exported but to Genoa, where they were necessarily obliged to sell their commodities at a very low rate; in a word, the governors, who were most commonly men of desperate fortunes, set no bounds to their haughtiness, their avarice, and extortion.

Long despised, oppressed, and plundered, a slight event, in the year 1729, once more roused the Corsicans to insurrection. It was occasioned by a single paolo, a piece of about fivepence English, which a poor elderly woman being unable to pay to a Genoese collector, he proceeded to seize her effects; and the tumult which this act of cruelty excited was the signal of a general revolt. The Corsicans flew to arms, seized on the capital of the island, and elected military chiefs. The Genoese, unable to subdue them alone, solicited and obtained the powerful assistance of the emperor Charles VI, by which the

* It was the place of exile for the Roman courtiers, when they became obnoxious to the emperors. Seneca was banished to this island by Claudius, on account of his illicit connection with Julia Agrippina; and here he wrote his books *de Consolatione*.

† The arms of the kingdom of Corsica are, Or, a Moor's head in profile, couped proper, banded argent.

Corſicans were once more compelled to enter into an accommodation with their tyrants; on condition, however, that the emperor would guaranty the treaty, which was accordingly ſigned in 1733.

This ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities was of very ſhort duration: the treaty was ſoon violated, the next year, by the Genoeſe; and the Corſicans reſumed their arms. They elected, for their general, Giafferi, one of their military chiefs in the laſt inſurrection; and with him they aſſociated Giacento Paoli, a gentleman of good family, of diſtinguiſhed merit, and the father of the preſent general Paſcal Paoli. It was during this war, in the year 1736, that Theodore baron Neuhoff, in conſequence of his aſſurances of very powerful aſſiſtance, obtained the ſovereignty of Corſica. His reign, however, was of very ſhort duration *. The Genoeſe had recourſe to

* This ſingular perſon was of the county of Marck in Weſtphalia. He had his education in the French ſervice, and had travelled, in purſuit of different projects, into England, the Netherlands, and Italy. He was a man of abilities and addreſs; and having conceived the ambition of becoming king of Corſica, he went to Tunis, where he found means to obtain a ſupply of money, arms, and ammunition. He then repaired to Leghorn, whence he wrote a letter to the Corſican chiefs, Giafferi and Paoli, offering conſiderable aſſiſtance to the nation, on condition that they would elect him their king. In conſequence of the favourable manner in which this application was received, he landed in Corſica, in the ſpring of 1736. He was a perſon of a very ſtately appearance, and the Turkiſh dreſs which he wore added to the dignity of his mien. He brought with him about one thouſand zechins of Tunis, beſide arms and ammunition. His manners were ſo engaging, and his promiſes of foreign aſſiſtance ſo plauſible and magnificent, that he was immediately proclaimed king. He aſſumed every mark of royal dignity: he had his guards and officers of ſtate: he conferred titles of honour, and coined money, both ſilver and copper. He immediately blocked up the Genoeſe fortified towns, and was neither inactive, nor unſucceſsful in his warlike operations; but the powerful aſſiſtance he had promiſed not having arrived, the Corſicans exhibited ſuch marks of diſſatisfaction, that, in about eight months after his election, he found it expedient to leave them; aſſuring them that he would go in perſon in ſearch of the long-expected ſuccours; and having formed a plan of adminiſtration in his abſence, he quitted the iſland in November. The courts of Great Britain and France had forbidden their ſubjects, by proclamation, from furniſhing any kind of aſſiſtance to the malecontents of Corſica. He repaired, therefore, to Holland, where he was ſo ſucceſsful as to procure credit to a great extent, from ſeveral rich merchants, who truſted him with cannon, and other warlike ſtores, under the charge of a ſupercargo. With theſe he returned to Corſica, in 1739; and, 'on his arrival,' *ſays Mr. Boſwell*, 'he put to death the ſupercargo, that he might not have any trouble from demands being made upon him.'—The French, however, were now become ſo powerful in the iſland, that although Theodore threw in his ſupply of warlike ſtores, he durſt not venture his perſon, the Genoeſe having ſet a high price upon his head. He choſe, therefore, to relinquiſh his throne, and to ſacrifice his ambitious views to his perſonal ſafety. In a word, after experiencing great viciſſitudes of fortune, he choſe to end his days in our iſland of liberty; but his ſituation here, by degrees, grew wretched, and he was reduced to ſuch diſtreſs, as to be, ſeveral years before his death, confined for debt in the King's Bench Priſon.

In this deplorable ſituation, Mr. Horace Walpole, now earl of Orford, wrote the 8th number of the World, dated February 22, 1753, with this motto: *Date obolum Belliſario*. It is replete with great elegance, and was written with the benevolent view of procuring a ſubſcription in favour of the unfortunate Theodore: 'How muſt I bluſh for my countrymen,' ſays Mr. Walpole, 'when I mention a monarch, an unhappy monarch, now actually ſuffered to languiſh for debt in one of the common priſons of this city! A monarch, whoſe courage raiſed him to a throne, not by a ſucceſſion of ambitious bloody acts, but by the voluntary election of an injured people, who had the common right of mankind to freedom, and the uncommon reſolution of determining to be free! This prince is Theodore, king of Corſica! A man, whoſe claim to

to the French king, who ſent an army into the iſland in 1738, and, in 1740, effectually reduced it. At the end of the year 1741, the French having more important objects in view, withdrew their forces from the iſland, after having put the Genoeſe in complete poſſeſſion of it. But the moment that the French had left the iſland, the Corſicans reſumed their arms; and, from that period, the war continued, under different chiefs, till 1755, when their preſent general, Paſcal Paoli, was elected to the chief com-

royalty is as indiſputable, as the moſt ancient titles to any monarchy can pretend to be; that is, the choice of his ſubjects; the only kind of title, allowed in the excellent Gothic conſtitutions, from whence we derive our own; the ſame kind of title, which endears the preſent royal family to Engliſhmen; and the only kind of title, againſt which, perhaps, no objection can lie.

'This prince (on whoſe hiſtory I ſhall not at preſent enlarge) after having bravely expoſed his life and crown in defence of the rights of his ſubjects, miſcarried, as Cato and other patriot heroes did before him. For many years he ſtruggled with fortune, and left no means untried, which indefatigable policy or ſolicitation of ſuccours could attempt, to recover his crown. At laſt, when he had diſcharged his duty to his ſubjects and himſelf, he choſe this country for his retirement, not to indulge a voluptuous inglorious eaſe, but to enjoy the participation of thoſe bleſſings, which he had ſo vainly endeavoured to fix to his Corſicans. Here for ſome months he bore with more philoſophic dignity the loſs of his crown, than Charles the fifth, Caſimir of Poland, or any of thoſe viſionaries, who wantonly reſigned theirs, to partake the ſluggiſh indolence, and at length the diſquiets, of a cloiſter. Theodore, though reſigned to his fortunes, had none of that contemptible apathy, which almoſt lifted our James the ſecond to the ſupreme honour of monkiſh ſainthood. It is recorded of that prince, that talking to his courtiers at St. Germain, he wiſhed for a ſpeedy peace between France and Great Britain, "for then, ſaid he, we ſhall get Engliſh horſes eaſily."

'The veracity of an hiſtorian obliges me not to diſguiſe the ſituation of his Corſican majeſty's revenue, which has reduced him to be a priſoner for debt in the King's Bench; and ſo cruelly has fortune exerciſed her rigours upon him, that laſt ſeſſion of parliament he was examined before a committee of the houſe of commons, on the hardſhips to which the priſoners in that gaol had been ſubject. Yet let not ill-nature make ſport with theſe misfortunes! His majeſty had nothing to bluſh at, nothing to palliate, in the recapitulation of his diſtreſſes. The debts on his civil liſt were owing to no miſapplication, no improvidence of his own, no corruption of his miniſters, no indulgence to favourites or miſtreſſes. His diet was philoſophic, his palace humble; his robes decent: yet his butcher, his landlady, and his tailor, could not continue to ſupply an eſtabliſhment, which had no demeſnes to ſupport it, no taxes to maintain it, no exciſes, no lotteries to provide funds for its deficiencies and emergencies.'

Mr. Walpole proceeds with ſome other obſervations in the ſame ſtrain, and then propoſes 'a ſubſcription for a *jubilate* for the uſe of his Corſican majeſty.'—This actually took place, and a very handſome ſum was produced. It is a curious fact, that Theodore, on this occaſion, behaved with characteriſtic dignity. He had received an intimation that ſome gentlemen would wait upon him with the amount of the ſubſcription. His lodging was in a garret; he caused his beſtead to be turned up; placed an arm-chair under the teſter, which ſerved as a canopy to this ſubſtitute for a throne; and thus, in royal ſtate, waited the arrival of the deputation. He was at laſt freed from priſon by an act of inſolvency, in conſequence of which he made over his kingdom of Corſica for the benefit of his creditors. This was actually regiſtered accordingly, and is now in the poſſeſſion of lord Orford, who has likewiſe the great ſeal of the kingdom. He died ſoon after, and was buried in the churchyard of St. Anne's Soho, where a plain monument is erected to him, with the following inſcription:

Near this place is interred Theodore, king of Corſica, who died in this pariſh, December 11, 1756, immediately after leaving the King's Bench Priſon, by the benefit of the act of inſolvency; in conſequence of which he regiſtered his kingdom of Corſica for the benefit of his creditors.

The

command *. This celebrated chief had the addreſs to engage all ranks to exert themſelves in providing what was neceſſary for carrying on the war with ſpirit, and ſoon drove the Genoeſe to the moſt remote corners of the iſland. He rectified innumerable abuſes, and formed a regular ſyſtem of adminiſtration: He civilized the manners of the Corſicans, eſtabliſhed a univerſity, and ſettled ſchools for the inſtruction of children in every village of the kingdom. He induced the Corſicans to apply to agriculture, commerce, and civil occupations, which had been interrupted, to the ruin of induſtry, by the long continuance of the war. The nation became firm and united; and, had not the French again interpoſed, the Corſicans would have entirely expelled the Genoeſe from the iſland. But when Paoli was on the point of ſucceſsfully terminating the war, the Genoeſe, in 1764, concluded a treaty with the French, by which the latter engaged to garriſon the fortified towns of Corſica for the term of four years. In 1767, the Genoeſe ſold their claim of ſovereignty to the French king, who, that very year, in addition to the garriſons already in Corſica, ſent another powerful body of troops under the command of the count de Vaux. Flattering manifeſtoes were publiſhed, in order to induce the Corſicans to become ſubjects of France; but, fired by the love of liberty, they defeated the French in ſeveral engagements. Freſh troops being ſent from France the conteſt, at length, became too unequal; the natives, weakened by their victories, were obliged to ſubmit; and, in June 1769, the brave Paoli, compelled to abandon his country to its fate, embarked on board an Engliſh ſhip, landed at Leghorn, and, repairing ſoon after to London, lived there many years, protected and ſupported by the Britiſh court.

Corſica being thus ſubdued, the French commander proceeded to new model the government of the iſland, which was placed under the juriſdiction of the parliament of Provence. In the mean time, the natives abandoned their country in great numbers; while the moſt intrepid of thoſe that remained took ſhelter in the mountainous parts, whence they ſeized every opportunity of falling upon their enemies, when ſeparated into ſmall parties; and they put to death, without mercy, all the French that fell into their hands. As nothing could ſubdue the unconquerable ſpirit of the natives, the moſt ſhocking cruelties were at length exerciſed upon all of them who were made priſoners; and by the year 1778, when the French king, who had *enſlaved* theſe iſlanders, declared himſelf the protector and guardian of the *liberties* of America (an interference, which, in the event, proved ſo fatal to himſelf) the poor friendleſs and deſerted Corſicans were nearly extirpated.

The memorable revolution of France in 1789, produced, at laſt, an unexpected change in the political aſpect

> The grave, great teacher, to a level brings
> Heroes and beggars, galley-ſlaves and kings;
> But Theodore this moral learn'd, ere dead;
> Fate pour'd its leſſon on his living head,
> Beſtow'd a kingdom, and deny'd him bread.

Theodore left a ſon, who lived many years in this country, under the ſurname of Frederick, and who had a ſon an officer in the Britiſh army, who was killed in the late war with America.

* Great Britain had forbidden her ſubjects to give any aſſiſtance to the Corſicans; but, in 1745, in conſequence of a revolution in her political connections, ſome Engliſh ſhips of war, with a Corſican chief on board, were ſent into the Mediterranean as auxiliaries to the king of Sardinia. Theſe ſhips bombarded Baſtia and St. Fiorenzo, of which they put the Corſicans in poſſeſſion.—At the peace, however, in 1763, a fierce proclamation was iſſued by the Britiſh court, in which theſe brave iſlanders were ſtyled *rebels*.

of

of Corſica. From the period in which it was conquered, this iſland had been retained in ſubjection by the ſtrong fetters only of military deſpotiſm. They had never ratified the infamous contract by which a nation was tranſferred, like a flock of ſheep, from the dominion of Genoa to that of France. The meeting of the ſtates-general at Verſailles had revived within the boſoms of theſe brave men the unſubdued ſpirit of liberty, and the hopes of being reinſtated in their rights. Theſe hopes were ſucceeded by a ſiniſter rumour, that they were once more to be ceded to the deteſted dominion of Genoa; or, at leaſt, that they were to be ſtill retained as a ſervile appendage to a land of freedom. In ſuch a ſtate of doubt and perplexity, the paſſions of the multitude are eaſily excited. They propoſed immediately to form a national guard. The citizens of Baſtia aſſembled for that purpoſe in the church of St. John. The army marched to diſperſe them, and in the conteſt ſome lives were loſt. In this ſtate of ferment the iſland remained, when deputies (among whom was Paſcal Paoli, who, at this important criſis, had reviſited his native country) appeared at the bar of the national conſtituent aſſembly, entreating, in the name of the people of Corſica, that they might be irrevocably united, by a decree of the legiſlature, to the French nation, as a conſtituent part of the empire. Such a requeſt was too reaſonable and too flattering to the aſſembly not to be inſtantly complied with; and Corſica was decreed to be an eighty-third department of France. This was followed by a motion of the count de Mirabeau (who lamented that his youth had been diſgraced by participating in the conqueſt of this iſland) to reſtore all who had emigrated, except on account of civil crimes, to their rank, their rights, and their property; and the illuſtrious Paoli, who had ſo often appeared as the general in chief, was now content to be commandant of the national guard at Baſtia.

This inſtance of wiſdom and liberality in the firſt national aſſembly of France (who, at the ſame time that they had ſolemnly renounced all views of war and conqueſt, appeared deſirous of eſtabliſhing throughout their empire the bleſſings of real liberty) ſeemed to promiſe an inſeparable connection between France and Corſica. But on the diſſolution of this aſſembly (the members of which had diſqualified themſelves from being rechoſen in the next) their ſucceſſors appeared to be men of very inferior talents and characters, and to be actuated by leſs enlightened views. The events which followed the revolution of the tenth of Auguſt 1792, were not ſuch as were calculated to enſure the attachment of the Corſicans to the new republic. Diſſatisfaction with the meaſures of the French convention, and particularly with thoſe which evinced an intention to overthrow all religion, became ſo manifeſt, that it ſoon excited to ſuſpicion, and rouſed to violence. On the 2d of April 1792, the popular ſociety of Toulon accuſed general Paoli to the convention as a ſupporter of deſpotiſm. They alleged that the general, in concert with the adminiſtrators of the department, had inflicted every kind of hardſhip upon the patriots, and at the ſame time favoured the emigrants and the refractory prieſts. They demanded that his head ſhould fall under the avenging ſword of the law. The convention decreed that general Paoli, and the attorney-general of the department of Corſica, ſhould be ordered to the bar to give an account of their conduct. Theſe refuſed to comply with this requiſition. They were ſupported by their countrymen, who had immediate recourſe to arms, and, ſome time after, to the powerful aſſiſtance of the Engliſh. The events that followed are well known: in the London Gazette of July 22 (which we have given *entire* in our laſt number) is an account of the important union of the kingdom of Corſica with the crown of Great Britain.

ON SUPERFLUOUS ADVICE.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

SOME months ago there appeared in your Magazine *, an excellent letter upon the difficulty of giving advice with a good grace, so as not to offend the person to whom it is offered. I had hopes that the writer of that letter would have pursued his subject, until he had reached that species of advice, which I have termed *superfluous*; but as he appears to have finished all he intended, I beg leave to request the insertion of a few lines.

I have called it *superfluous advice*; and I mean by it that advice which, however good in itself, is given at a time when it cannot be of the least consequence to the party. Now good advice being one of the most valuable things upon earth, you will no doubt be surprised that it should be thrown away in this manner, yet nothing is more certain, for instances of it occur every day. If a young fellow falls from his horse, and is hurt, there are some of the wisest of his friends who advise him not to ride so fast, or not to ride in the dark, or on such a bad road, &c.—All this must certainly be very consoling to him, at the time when the surgeon is probing one wound, and his assistant, perhaps, binding up another; and it must likewise be very *useful* at the precise moment when he is most sensible of his rashness, if he really has been rash, and is more conscious of the narrowness of his escape than any wise man around him can possibly be.

Some time ago, in company with a friend, and coming to town to oblige him whose business required that he should be very early in town, I had the honour to meet with three of those gentlemen, whose notions of personal property are so confused that they take every opportunity to appropriate to their own uses what does not belong to them, and who commit so many mistakes of this kind, that it often requires a very learned judge, and twelve men beside, to convince them they have done wrong. In a word, sir, the highwaymen stripped us of our money and watches, and left us only our philosophy to console us.

On our arrival in town, and announcing our loss, we expected to meet with some pity, seeing we had no means of defence, and were proceeding on his majesty's highway on our lawful business. But instead of that, for near a month, we were overwhelmed with *ex post facto* advice, and *post obit* wisdom. One assured us that we could not have been robbed, if we had not travelled by night. Another blamed us excessively for not doing *as he did*, namely, to travel without any property about us. A third, with a smile of conscious superiority, wondered that we did not secrete our watches in the seat of the chaise, or among the straw, or under our arm-pits, or in twenty other places, in all of which he was certain they would have been perfectly safe; and in one or other of them he seriously *advised* us to depositе such articles, 'in all time forthcoming.' A fourth, collecting all his prospective powers of sapience into one focus, advised us never to travel on that road without pistols. Others, again, were so perfectly astonished at our having been robbed, that they could not reconcile it to any known principles of human prudence. 'What! bless me! did not you see the highwaymen coming? Could not you have ordered the post-boy to drive on? Could not you have dropt your watches on the bottom of the chaise? Could not you, if you must travel by night, have borrowed pistols by the way? Could not you have come away

* For June 1794.

earlier?

earlier? Could not you have ſtaid till next morning? Could not you have got a caſt in the mail coach? Could not you——

But I ſhall be out of breath. In ſhort, it appeared that to be robbed at all is one of the moſt fooliſh, unwiſe, imprudent things on earth, and that of all fooliſh, unwiſe, and imprudent robberies, ours was the principal. Indeed, I began to doubt whether we were not the firſt who had ever met with the misfortune of being robbed, and that while the reſt of mankind were enjoying the luxury of cautious ſagacity, and protected by the quinteſſence of true wiſdom, we two were the only fools which the kingdom of Great Britain produced. Nay, from the manner in which we were *tutored* and *adviſed* by ſome of our Mentors, I am doubtful whether they did not think that we ſet out with a direct intention to be robbed, and that we had given due notice to the thieves, where they might moſt conveniently meet with us.

Such is the kind of advice we are perpetually receiving from our ſage counſellors, after the affair is over which they wiſh to prevent, and the loſs irretrievable which they wiſh to avert. Even the bedſide of the ſick is not protected from advice of this kind; there are always ſome ſagacious perſons, who foreſaw that the patient muſt catch cold, if he did ſo and ſo, and who really wondered that when taken ill, he had not immediate recourſe to Dr. Bolus, or Dr. Apozem, or ſome other infallible terror of diſeaſes. As to broken limbs, one would think they were always matters of premeditation. A friend of mine ſtepping haſtily out of a coach, which ſeveral hundreds do every day without hurt or danger, had the misfortune to fall and break his leg. He has often told me that the pain of ſetting the limb, and the ſubſequent confinement would have been very tolerable, but for the *kind admonitions* of his friends, who had long declared open war againſt all ſteps of coaches, and really wondered how he could be ſo fooliſh as to jump haſtily out of a coach: 'this was what they never did, what no wiſe man ever did, and what certainly none but fools would do.'

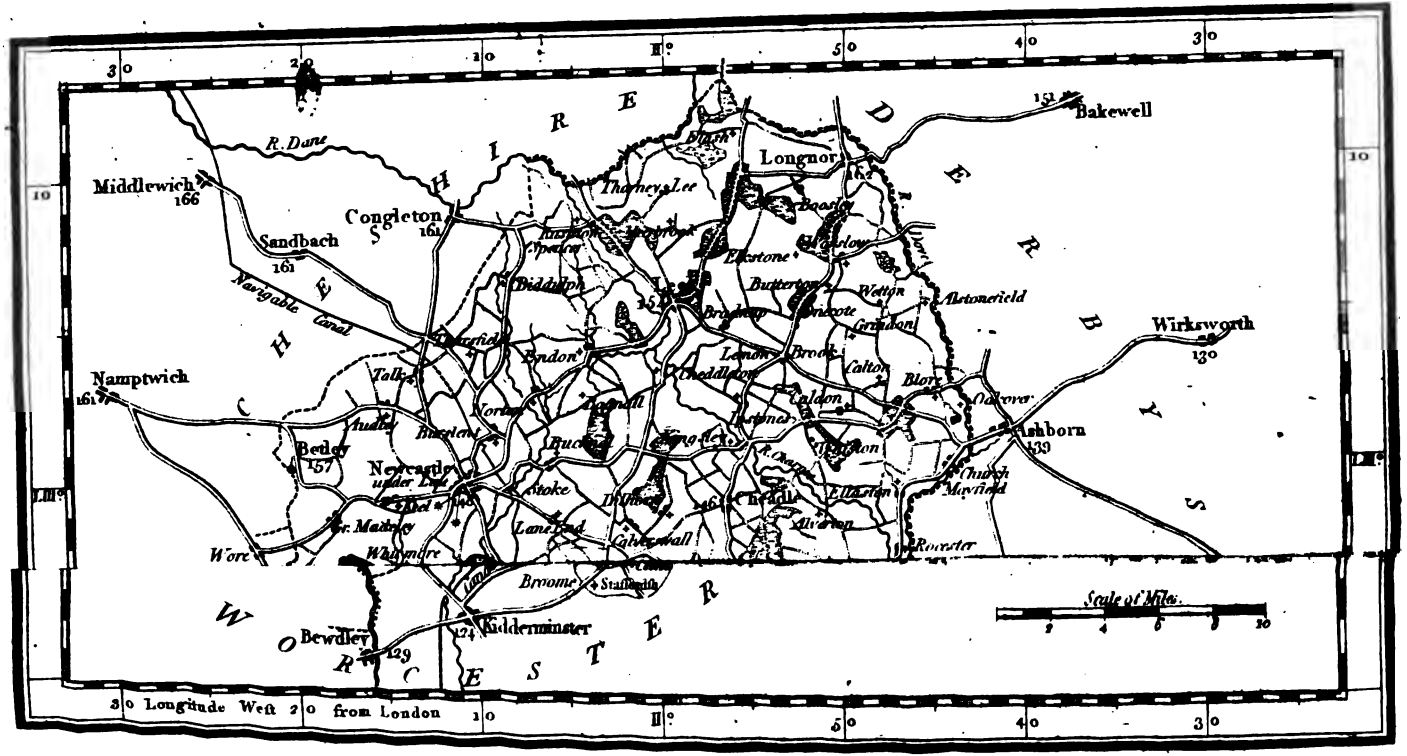
But there is no caſe in which this kind of wiſdom is more frequently employed, than when a perſon happens to be over-reached by a ſwindler, or artful fellow, of which there are always plenty to take advantage of unſuſpecting innocence. Now, indeed, the ſufferer is aſſailed with innumerable ſcraps of *poſt obit* ſagacity. Why did he truſt ſuch a perſon? Why did he not ſuſpect him? Surely he ought to have had all his eyes about him. *We* would not have been taken in by ſuch a fellow; and we would *adviſe* him in future to be more upon his guard againſt men of that deſcription.

I was not a little diverted, the other day, on viewing the ruins of the houſes at Ratcliffe Croſs, to hear the various ſagacious remarks made by the other ſpectators. They could not conceive how it could be poſſible that a fire could have done ſo much miſchief in the day time. What was to hinder the inhabitants from removing their goods? This, and a hundred other ſimilar queſtions and remarks, accompanied by ſuitable ſhrugs, nods, and winks, convinced me that none are fools but ſufferers, and it is the wiſe only who eſcape—*unavoidable calamities.*

I know I ſhall be told, that the dealers in this kind of wiſdom mean well. This ſame *well-meaning* is, in many inſtances, a great enemy to proper acting. A mother beats her child becauſe it falls down; a rider flogs his horſe becauſe he ſtumbles—and they may, for any thing I know, mean well. But I am certain that neither child nor horſe will be the better for a puniſhment inflicted in the heat of paſſion, and without a due conſideration, or any conſideration at all, indeed, of the circumſtances.

The truth is, we may ſet *well-*

meaning



CHESHIRE
DERBYS
WORCESTER
R. Dane
Middlewich
166
Congleton
161
Sandbach
161
Navigable Canal
Namptwich
161
Bakewell
151
Longnor
162
Wirksworth
130
Ashborn
139
Alstonefield
Wetton
Grindon
Calton
Blore
Oakover
Church Mayfield
Rocester
Ellaston
Alverton
Cheadle
Ingestre
Cheddleton
Lemon
Brook
Caldon
Butterton
Elkstone
Boosley
Thorney Lee
Biddulph
Endon
Talk
Audley
Bucknall
Stoke
Lane End
Calverswall
Broome
Staffordsh
Kidderminster
124
Bewdley
129
Wore
Gr. Madeley
Whitmore
Newcastle under Lyme
Betley
157
Burslem
Norton
Longitude West 20 from London
Scale of Miles
2
4
6
8
10

meaning aſide, and refer the kind of advice I have deſcribed, to that conſtant deſire we have to embrace every opportunity of diſplaying our ſuperior ſagacity, at a time when we can do it without the riſk of being contradicted. A man who has been robbed, or impoſed upon, or who has received any hurt by careleſſneſs or accident, appears a creature beneath us. We look at him with a degree of contempt, and the advice we give, of which it is impoſſible he can ſtand in need, we give with a haughty ſneer, and with a tacit inſinuation that he is yet too blindly fooliſh to perceive the cauſe of his misfortune.

As to thoſe who are ſo very ready with their advice, after the accident is over, it may be obſerved, that they are as profoundly ſilent before it happens. They are as little converſant in the doctrine of chances as others; but if you will tell them how any misfortune happened, no people can be more ready to inform you of twenty ways in which it *might* have been prevented. There are ſome people, indeed, who have the happy faculty of always foreſeeing misfortunes, and who are content to live a life of fear, if in the courſe of it they can be able to boaſt that they have ſaved a cork-ſcrew, or a handkerchief from the fangs of a pickpocket. With theſe people every noiſe is a houſebreaker; every ſmell is a fire. Caution is unqueſtionably neceſſary; but exceſs of caution comes very near to that diſtruſt in Providence, which a good man would not cheriſh, and to that unhappy timidity in which no wiſe man would wiſh to live.

But, that I may not leave the *poſt obit* adviſers in ill-humour, I ſhall not dilate upon the ſubject, but merely ſubmit to their conſideration, whether a grain of good advice in a time of danger, is not preferable to a buſhel of their ſagacity after an accident has happened. I am, ſir, &c.

NEITHER RASH NOR FEARFUL.

An Account of STAFFORDSHIRE: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

STAFFORDSHIRE is a county of England, bounded on the weſt by Shropſhire; on the north-weſt by Cheſhire; on the north-eaſt and eaſt by Derbyſhire; on the ſouth-eaſt by Warwickſhire; and on the ſouth by Worceſterſhire. It extends in length 55 miles; its extreme breadth not more than twenty-four. The rivers Dove and Trent form a natural boundary on the Derbyſhire ſide: on the other ſides, it has no remarkable limits. It lies in the dioceſe of Lichfield and Coventry; is divided into five hundreds; contains one city, ſeventeen market-towns, and 130 pariſhes; and ſends ten members to parliament.

The northern part of this county, called the Moorlands, is a wild hilly country, reſembling the adjacent Derbyſhire. Its elevation may be judged of from the number of ſtreams which take their riſe in it, ſome of which run into oppoſite ſeas. Of theſe the principal is the Trent, which, iſſuing from three ſeveral ſprings between Congleton and Leek, flows ſouthward through the midſt of the county, continually augmented by rills from the ſame region; and at length, having received the Tame from the ſouth, acquires a new direction, and, with a north-eaſterly courſe, penetrates into Derbyſhire, juſt after its junction with the Dove. This laſt river, riſing alſo in the Moorlands, runs between the counties of Derby and Stafford to the place where it meets the Trent, having received from the north of Staffordſhire the Manyfold, the Churnet, and ſeveral other ſtreams.

South of the Trent the principal rivers are the Sow, running parallel and near to that river till it falls into it below Stafford; and the Penk, flowing by Penkringe to join the Sow. The Stour runs through the ſouthern angle of the county in its

courſe to meet the Severn in Worceſterſhire.

The valley along which the Trent glides is for the moſt part very fertile and beautiful, adorned with ſeats and plantations, and affording a variety of beautiful proſpects. The middle and ſouthern parts of the county in general are agreeably diverſified with wood, paſture, and arable. The great foreſt of Cank or Cannock, in the centre, once covered with oaks, is now, and has long been, a wide naked tract. At the ſouthern extremity the Clent-hills, Hagley, and its neighbourhood, are well known for the more romantic beauties which they poſſeſs. In this tract the counties of Stafford, Worceſter, and Salop, are ſtrangely intermixed.

Coal is abundant in various parts of Staffordſhire; particularly in the moorlands and the neighbourhood of Newcaſtle; and alſo about Wolverhampton, at Bilſton and Wedneſbury, whence Birmingham is chiefly ſupplied with its fuel. The northern and ſouthern parts alſo contain much iron ore.

This county has long been noted, and is now particularly famous, for its potteries; the chief ſeat of which is near Newcaſtle, in a line of villages extending about ten miles. The neighbourhood affords abundance of the moſt bulky materials for this buſineſs, viz. fire-clay and coals; but their finer clays are brought from Purbeck in Dorſetſhire, and other parts of that coaſt; and flints from the chalk pits near Graveſend, and ſome from Wales and Ireland. For the conveyance of theſe they have the benefit of water-carriage, either from Hull and Gainſborough, by means of the Trent, which communicates with the ſouthern extremity of the grand Staffordſhire canal; or from Liverpool, by means of the Merſey, and the duke of Bridgewater's navigation, to the northern extremity of the ſame canal. The manufactured goods are ſent away by the ſame conveyances. The perfection to which this manufacture has been brought, and the great elegance of the uſeful and ornamental articles of which it conſiſts, have rendered it a very important object of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

Some iron works are eſtabliſhed in the neighbourhood of Newcaſtle; and the ſouthern extremity of the county is enlivened by various branches of the hardware manufacture (in which it participates with the neighbouring Birmingham) particularly the towns of Walſall, Dudley, and Wolverhampton, the latter of which is famous for its lock manufacture, and now makes a great quantity of the japanned ware.

The trade of this county is in a peculiar manner aſſiſted by the grand ſyſtem of canal navigation, of which it is, as it were, the centre, and which is carried through its whole length. The grand trunk, as it has been ingeniouſly termed, enters the north of the county from Cheſhire, and, after piercing Harecaſtle-hill, by a ſubterraneous paſſage of a mile and a half in length, paſſes through the potteries, and thence ſouthward acroſs the Trent almoſt to Lichfield; whence it turns ſhort over the Trent again, and over the Dove, in its way to mix with the Trent at Wilden-ferry. From the neighbourhood of Stafford it ſends off a branch, which runs directly ſouthwards by Penkridge, and near Wolverhampton, to join the Severn near Kidderminſter. With this a canal from Birmingham and another from Stourbridge communicate. Thus the great ports of Briſtol, Liverpool, and Hull, are all acceſſible to the various products and manufactures of Staffordſhire.

New

New and Curious Particulars in the Natural Hiſtory of the ANIMALS *of* Labrador.

[From Cartwright's Journal of a Reſidence of Sixteen Years on the Coaſt of Labrador.]

The PORCUPINE.

I Do not know how many the porcupines have at a birth; but I imagine they are not very prolific: for if they were, they would deſtroy all the trees in the country, as they feed on nothing but rinds the whole winter, and by ſo doing kill a prodigious number of trees of all ſorts; though they prefer the ſilver-fir to all others. In ſpring, they are very fond of the leaves of the larch, and in the autumn, they eat a bad ſpecies of muſhrooms, which grow here in tolerable plenty. This creature is a good deal like the beaver, in ſize and ſhape; the only difference is in the tail and feet. They both ſit up, and make uſe of their fore feet to feed themſelves with. The porcupine readily climbs trees, for which purpoſe he is furniſhed with very long claws; and, in winter, when he mounts into a tree, I believe he does not come down till he has eaten the bark from the bottom to the top. He generally makes his courſe through a wood, in a ſtraight direction; ſeldom miſſing a tree, unleſs ſuch as are old. He loves the young ones beſt, and devours ſo much, eating only the inner part of the rind, that I have frequently known one porcupine ruin near a hundred trees in a winter. A man who is acquainted with the nature of theſe animals, will ſeldom miſs finding them when the ſnow is on the ground, if he can but hit upon the rinding of that winter; by making a circuit round the barked trees, he will ſoon come upon his track, unleſs a very deep ſnow ſhould chance to fall after his laſt aſcent. Having once diſcovered that, he will not be long, ere he find the animal. The belly of a porcupine is covered with coarſe fur, but all the reſt of him, with ſharp prickles; the longeſt and ſtrongeſt of which are on his rump and tail. It is a received opinion that a porcupine can dart his quills at pleaſure into a diſtant object; but, I venture to affirm that this ſpecies cannot (whatever any other may do) for I have taken much pains to aſcertain the fact. On the approach of danger, he retreats into a hole, if poſſible; but where he cannot find one, he ſeizes upon the beſt ſhelter that offers, ſinks his noſe between his fore legs, and defends himſelf by a ſharp ſtroke of his tail, or a ſudden jerk of his back. As the quills are bearded at their points, and not deeply rooted in the ſkin, they ſtick firmly into whatever they penetrate. Great care ſhould be taken to extract them immediately; otherwiſe, by the muſcular motion of the animal into which they are ſtruck, enforced by the beards of the quills, they ſoon work themſelves quite through the part; but I never perceived the puncture to be attended with worſe ſymptoms, than that of a chirurgical inſtrument.

I lately killed an old porcupine with young, ready to bring forth. It chanced to be upon the ground; and my greyhound, which always attends me and never had ſeen one before, no ſooner ſet eyes on her, than he ſtruck at her with the ſame reſolution that he would have done at a fox. I thought he would inſtantly have gone mad. His tongue, the whole inſide of his mouth, his noſe and face were ſtuck as full of quills, as it was poſſible for them to be; inſomuch, that his mouth was gagged wide open, and he was in ſuch agony, that he would have bit me, when I attempted to give him relief, could he have cloſed his mouth. Upon returning to the houſe, I made Jack

hold him down, and then, with the aſſiſtance of a pair of bullet-moulds, in about three hours time, I extracted moſt of them. Some were broken too ſhort to take hold of, and I drew out ſeveral by their points, which had penetrated quite through the roof of his mouth and the cartilage of his noſe.

The White-Bear.

Not a ſingle track of a white-bear has been ſeen for a long time paſt, which makes me think that thoſe creatures keep out upon the outer edge of the ice during the winter; for, there they may meet with ſeals. When they come on ſhore, I preſume it is chiefly on the outer iſlands; yet I have ſometimes known them go far into the country, in the winter; but how they can procure food there, is to me unknown; for I cannot believe they can catch any other land animal than the porcupine, and of them but few; they muſt alſo pay ſeverely for a ſcanty meal, from the pain occaſioned by the quills which nature has provided for its defence. As to fiſh, they certainly can catch but few, and thoſe only ſmall ones, in ſuch parts of rivers and brooks, as the ſtrength or particular ſets of their currents, or warm ſprings may keep open. I ſhould have imagined, that they would reſort greatly to thoſe parts of the tickles going into Sandwich Bay, which are open all winter, becauſe great numbers of winter ſeals [harps, and their young, called bedlamers] conſtantly remain there; yet we never ſaw the track of one in the depth of winter. Theſe animals are prodigious travellers, and muſt certainly be able to go a long time without food. When they can get nothing elſe, they will feed on the long ſtalks of the ſea weed from which kelp is made; ſo will ſeals likewiſe, for I have ſeen both of them do it. Great numbers of them, I believe, are deſtroyed every ſpring, by being carried upon the ice too far from land to be able to regain it, although they will ſwim to a very great diſtance. I have heard of their being met with, on looſe pans of ice, fifty leagues from the land, by ſhips which have been coming upon the coaſt. They bring forth their young about March, and drop them upon the ice, where they lie for ſome days before they are able to follow their dams, which leave them there while they go in queſt of prey; and when they are firſt able to travel, frequently carry them on their backs. They moſt commonly have but one at a time; ſometimes, however, they have two, and I have heard of their having three. They breed but once in two years, and their cubs follow them all that time; but how long they ſuckle them, or how long they go with young I do not know. When the cubs are very ſmall, it is dangerous to meet them, as they have then been often known to attack a man without the leaſt provocation; but at other times, they always make off: yet, ſhould you fire at one at any time of the year, and ſhoot it through a part which is not immediately mortal, you muſt expect to be inſtantly attacked with the greateſt fury. As they are amazingly ſtrong and excellent boxers, your danger will be eminent, unleſs you have a double-barreled gun loaded with ſhot to blind them, or a dog, which will keep continually ſeizing them behind (this all dogs will do, after they have run at two or three) the bear will then ſit down on his buttocks and ſpin round like a top, endeavouring to get hold of the dog. This is the time, when you may approach and kill him dead at one ſhot; if you are but cool: but if the dog is not well-uſed to the ſport, he will attack him forward; in which caſe he is ſure to be either killed, lamed, or cowed immediately, and the bear will then attack you.

The Raindeer.

Notwithſtanding raindeer are naturally very wild and timorous, yet no creature is ſo ſoon, or ſo effectually tamed if taken young; but what they

may

may be when caught afterward I cannot tell. They not only grow very bold, but alſo ſhew great affection for ſuch men and dogs as they take a liking to, and have a great ſpite againſt thoſe who affront them. This deer of mine has had its full liberty ever ſince the fourth day after it was caught (except a few nights confinement in the crib, leſt the dogs ſhould kill it when we were all aſleep) but ſince that, it has conſtantly lain out. It is not the leaſt alarmed at any noiſe, not even at the report of a gun fired cloſe to it; but it is much terrified, if any dogs run after, or even hear it, and any running of the people inſtantly affrights it; but the moment all is quiet, it is ſo too. It will often go up to a dog and ſmell to him; it is well acquainted with all mine, and will lie down by the fire among them. I believe they ſcarce ever ſleep, for as much as I have watched this, I never could obſerve, that it was ever aſleep, or kept its eyes cloſed for more than two ſeconds at a time; and if I moved ever ſo little, it would ſtart up. When I have lain down on the bed, at a time when it was lying on the floor, it would ſtart up every five or ſix minutes, and come to ſee that I was not gone; and having licked my face, or ſucked my neck handkerchief a little, it would quietly lie down again. When at any time it loſt me, it would run about, grunting ſomewhat like a hog, and never reſt until it had found me, when it would run up to me in full ſpeed. Sometimes I have diverted myſelf, with ſtooping and running, both after and from it, which pleaſed it much; and it would do the ſame, and friſk about in the ſame manner, as I have ſeen the wild calves one among another; and I have likewiſe obſerved, that whenever it is frightened, it erects its ſingle, which at all other times hangs down. It is a miſtaken notion that they will not eat graſs, or ſcarcely any thing but white moſs; for they will eat every kind of vegetable which this country naturally produces; alexander, and ſome few other things excepted: nor have I yet been able to diſcover that any beaſt in this country would eat alexander, except black-bears, which are very fond of it. Raindeer do not ſeem to reliſh graſs much, yet I have ſeen mine eat a little, and it generally preferred the coarſeſt kinds. I have obſerved, that in the latter end of April, and in the month of May, the wild ones eat little elſe beſide dry graſs and wild rye, which then appear through the ſnow. They affect great variety in their food, while things are in a growing ſtate; preferring the youngeſt and moſt juicy. This cauſes them to vary their food every month; and alſo ſeveral times in the ſame day, accordingly as it is moiſt or dry; rejecting now what an hour ago they preferred to every thing elſe. The leaves of the dog-berry buſh when young, and a tender plant which grows by hill ſides on moiſt ground, reſembling croſs lettice, as alſo a ſucculent, aquatic plant which grows in ponds, all theſe they devour moſt greedily. There is a ſmall pond near this houſe which is full of the latter, and this deer of mine has eaten it cloſe down to the water. I think I have ſeen the ſame kind of plant in the Highlands of Scotland, and is what they uſe there in their beer, inſtead of hops. They alſo delight to eat the young leaves of moſt ſorts of trees and ſhrubs which have not a reſinous juice; particularly the willow: but I have known them eat the outer ſhoots of the black ſpruce in the winter time, though but ſparingly. I moſt wonder that they are not fond of vetches, which grow in great abundance here. I have often tracked the wild ones through large beds of them, without obſerving that they cropped any; yet I have ſeen mine eat a few ſometimes. This will eat a little of the crumb of ſoft bread, but will ſcarcely touch the cruſt, or biſcuit; but that may be owing to the tenderneſs of its teeth. Pudding and boiled potatoes it is very fond of, but will not eat the latter

raw;

raw; it will alſo eat boiled ſalt meat. They are very ſure footed; for they will run along ſhore, over ſharp, rough rocks, or ſmooth, round, looſe ſtones, without ever ſtumbling or ſlipping; but on ſmooth ice they can with difficulty ſtand. They are beautifully made, are as ſtraight limbed, and have nearly the ſame ſhape as the horſe, only not ſo good a neck. They walk, trot, and gallop in the ſame manner, and no old hunter will take either a flying, or ſtanding leap with more grace or judgment than my young deer will now. They have great ſtrength and are remarkably active; which renders them very uſeful in a ſled. They go very wide behind, are fearleſs of their road, and will ſwim with moſt extraordinary ſwiftneſs, to a prodigious diſtance: I am certain they will ſwim more than five miles an hour, and I verily believe, ſix. The ſtags have a deal more courage than the hinds, and thoſe hinds which have calves, have leſs than the dry ones. When they hear a noiſe, or if they ſee a man ſtanding perfectly ſtill, their curioſity will often tempt them to make out the object; a curioſity which I have known prove fatal to them; for they will frequently gallop, or trot down within ſixty or a hundred yards, and there ſtand and gaze for the ſpace of a minute or two. When they are ſatisfied, they run off, and generally ſink their wind to be informed of a purſuit. In the winter they moſt commonly go ſeveral miles before they reſt. If purſued by a dog, they huſband their ſpeed and wind ſurpriſingly; for they will ſuffer their purſuer to come by degrees within a few yards of them, but no nearer, if they can prevent it; they will then continue to run at this rate until he is tired; and as ſoon as he ſtops, they will do ſo too, and turn about and look at him; after which they will go leiſurely on, but often ſtop to look back. If they are upon ice, where there is much ſnow, they will not quit it for the barren hills. When purſued in the ſummer time, they always make for the neareſt water, in which no land animal has the leaſt chance with them. If their enemy comes up with them, they defend themſelves with their horns and hind feet; and are ſo ſtrong and active, that a fair ſtroke with either, generally proves fatal to wolf or dog, if the deer be an old one. I have often eat of various kinds of veniſon, and in different countries; but I think none equal to that of the raindeer when in proper ſeaſon. From the obſervations which mine has given me opportunities to make, I am of opinion, that there are many parts of England where they would live and thrive well, but I do not think they would exiſt in ſuch parks as produce nothing but fine graſs.

It is a matter of curioſity and ſurpriſe, that the male raindeer ſhould ſo ſoon loſe their horns after they come to perfection; and that Nature ſhould deprive them of the means of defence, at the very time they appear moſt to ſtand in need of them, to defend themſelves from the wolves; and that it ſhould be ſo long before the new ones appear. As they can ſwim faſter and longer, than, I believe, any other land animal; and all the different countries in which they are found, being full of ponds and rivers, they preſerve themſelves in ſummer from the ravenous jaws of the wolves by taking the water. Did they not mew [caſt their horns] till April, they would then not only oftentimes find water to fly to, but the bitch wolves being at that ſeaſon big with whelp, the dogs weak, and the ſnow very rotten, they would then not be in ſo much danger, as between December and that time.

The BLACK-BEAR.

At noon I diſcovered a black-bear feeding on Veniſon Head; taking Mr. Collingham, Martin, and four dogs with me, we landed under Berry Hill, and ſhot him through. I then laid the dogs on and baited him for ſome time; they all behaved very well, particularly the greyhound, which always kept behind; but the three

News

Newfoundland dogs ſeizing forward, he lamed them all, and one of them ſo deſperately, that I am afraid he will ſcarcely ever be good for any thing again. Obſerving that the other two were in great danger alſo, I ſeized the bear by the back of his neck, introduced my knife behind his ſhoulder to his heart, and killed him. This method I learnt from his majeſty's Jaguirs, in the foreſt of Linſburg, in Hanover, when I was killing wild boars with them, at the concluſion of the German war. When a boar is ſtabbed in that manner he inſtantly drops dead, but this bear did not; on the contrary, he fought the dogs moſt furiouſly until all his blood was ſpilt, and the exertions which he made, forced it up my ſleeve as high as my elbow. He weighed ſixty-three pounds, was getting fat, and I judge him to be about three or four years old.

* * * * *

The diſtance which we walked to day (Sept. 23) is about ſeven miles. We found the woods but thin in general; the walking good, and plenty of feed for deer at this time of the year, and for black-bears in the ſummer. I obſerved, that both thoſe creatures had greatly availed themſelves of it; and if I had had a hound to have drawn on the ſcent, I make no doubt, but I ſhould have ſeen deer; as the marks of their feeding, was quite freſh. The food, which the black-bears meet with here, is ants and flies: the woods have been burnt ſeveral years ago, and great numbers of trees lie on the ground; which being now perfectly rotten, are filled with plenty of ants and other inſects. The bears break theſe trees to pieces with their paws, and lick out the inſects with their tongues. This is no ſuppoſition, but a real fact; for I have killed a bear with her paunch almoſt full of ſuch inſects, and with nothing elſe in her.

The Chineſe Art of preſerving Health.

BE virtuous; govern your paſſions; reſtrain your appetites; avoid exceſs, and high-ſeaſoned food; eat ſlowly, and chew your food well. Do not eat to full ſatiety. Breakfaſt betimes; it is not wholeſome to go out faſting. In winter, a glaſs or two of wine is an excellent preſervative againſt unwholeſome air. Make a hearty meal about noon, and eat plain meats only. Avoid ſalted meats; thoſe who eat them often have pale complexions, a ſlow pulſe, and are full of corrupted humours. Sup betimes, and ſparingly. Let your meat be neither too little nor too much done. Sleep not till two hours after eating. Begin your meals with a little tea, and waſh your mouth with a cup of it afterward. I do indeed drink wine; but never more than four or five ſmall glaſſes.

The moſt important advice which I can give for maintaining the body in due temperament, is to be very moderate in the uſe of all the pleaſures of ſenſe; for all exceſs weakens the ſpirits. Walk not too long at once. Stand not for hours in one poſture; nor lie longer than neceſſary. In winter, keep not yourſelf too hot; nor in ſummer too cold. Immediately after you awake, rub your breaſt where the heart lies, with the palm of your hand. Avoid a ſtream of wind as you would an arrow. Coming out of a warm bath, or after hard labour, do not expoſe your body to cold. If in the ſpring there ſhould be two or three hot days, do not be in haſte to put off your winter clothes. It is unwholeſome to fan yourſelf during perſpiration. Waſh your mouth with water or tea, lukewarm, before you go to reſt, and rub the ſoles of your feet warm When you lie down, baniſh all thought.

DU HALDE.

On the ancient DIVERSIONS *of the* ENGLISH NATION.

DIVERSIONS of ſome kind ſeem to be abſolutely neceſſary, and to none more than to the man of ſtudy; for the moſt vigorous mind cannot bear to be always bent. Conſtant application to one purſuit, if it deeply engage the attention, is apt to unhinge the mind, and to generate madneſs; of which the don Quixote of Cervantes, and the aſtronomer of Johnſon, are two admirably conceived inſtances. But though diverſion is neceſſary to relieve the mind, it indicates great frivolity when made the buſineſs of life; and yet the rich and the great, who are not obliged to labour for the means of ſubſiſtence, too often rove from diverſion to diverſion with as conſtant aſſiduity as the mechanic toils for his family, or as the philoſopher devotes himſelf to the cultivation of ſcience. When thoſe diverſions tend to give elaſticity to the mind or ſtrength to the body, ſuch conduct is not only allowable, but praiſe-worthy; but when they produce effects the reverſe of theſe, they are both hurtful and criminal. The gaming-table, the maſquerade, the midnight aſſembly of any ſort, muſt of neceſſity enfeeble both the body and the mind; and yet ſuch are the faſhionable amuſements of the preſent day, to which many a belle and many a beau ſacrifice their beauty, their health, their quiet, and their virtue.

Far different were the diverſions of our wiſer anceſtors: remote from vice and effeminacy, they were innocent, manly, and generous exerciſes. From the ancient records of this country, it appears, that the ſports, amuſements, pleaſures, and recreations, of our anceſtors, as deſcribed by Fitz Stephen*, added ſtrength and agility to the wheels of ſtate mechaniſm, while they had a direct tendency toward utility. For moſt of theſe ancient recreations are reſolvable into the public defence of the ſtate againſt the attacks of a foreign enemy. The play at ball, derived from the Romans, is firſt introduced by this author as the common exerciſe of every ſchool-boy. The performance was in a field, where the reſort of the moſt ſubſtantial and conſiderable citizens, to give encouragement and countenance to this feat of agility, was ſplendid and numerous. The intention of this amuſement, at this period of time, was to make the juvenile race active, nimble, and vigorous; which qualities were requiſite whenever their aſſiſtance ſhould be wanted in the protection of their country. The next ſpecies of diverſion indeed does not ſeem to have this tendency; but it was only, as it ſeems, an annual cuſtom: this was cock-fighting. The author tells us, that in the afternoon of Shrove-Tueſday, on which day this cuſtom prevailed, they concluded the day in throwing the ball: which ſeems to inſinuate, that the cock-fighting was merely in conformity to ancient uſage, and limited only to part of the day, to make way for a more laudable performance. We may reaſonably ſuppoſe, although this author is entirely ſilent upon this head, that while cock-fighting was going on, cock-throwing was the ſport of the loweſt claſs of people, who could not afford the ex-

* Otherwiſe called William Stephanides, a monk of Canterbury, who lived in the reign of king Stephen, to the time of Richard I. He wrote a Latin treatiſe, in which he gives an account of the ſeveral diverſions which were countenanced in his time. Bale in his writings draws a pleaſing portrait of him. He is likewiſe ſketched in ſtrong and forcible outlines of praiſe and commendation by Leland. Bale ſays thus of him: 'The time which other people uſually miſemployed in an idle and frivolous manner, he conſecrated to inquiries which tended to increaſe the fame and dignity of his country; in doing which, he was not unworthy of being compared to Plato; for, like him, he made the ſtudy of men and heaven his conſtant exerciſe.'

pence of the former *. Another ſpecies of manly exerciſe was truly martial, and intended to qualify the adventurers for martial diſcipline. It is related by Fitz Stephen thus: 'Every Friday in Lent, a company of young men comes into the field on horſeback, attended and conducted by the beſt horſemen: then march forth the ſons of the citizens, and other young men, with diſarmed lances and ſhields; and there practiſe feats of war. Many courtiers likewiſe, when the king is near the ſpot, and attendants upon noblemen, do repair to theſe exerciſes; and while the hope of victory does inflame their minds, they ſhow by good proof how ſerviceable they would be in martial affairs.' This evidently is of Roman deſcent, and immediately brings to our recollection the *Ludus Trojæ*, ſuppoſed to be the invention, as it was the common exerciſe, of Aſcanius. The common people, in this age of maſculine manners, made every amuſement where ſtrength was exerted the ſubject-matter of inſtruction and improvement: inſtructed to exert their bodily ſtrength in the maintenance of their country's rights; and their minds improved, by ſuch exertion, into every manly and generous principle.

In the vacant intervals of induſtry and labour, commonly called the holy-days, indolence and inactivity, which at this day mark this portion of time, were found only in thoſe whoſe lives were diſtempered with age or infirmity. The view which Fitz-Stephen gives us of the Eaſter-holidays is animated. 'In Eaſter-holidays they fight battles upon the water. A ſhield is hanged upon a pole, fixed in the middle of the ſtream. A boat is prepared without oars, to be borne along by the violence of the water; and in the forepart thereof ſtandeth a young man, ready to give charge upon the ſhield with his lance. If ſo be that he break his lance againſt the ſhield, and doth not fall, he is thought to have performed a worthy deed. If without breaking his lance he runs ſtrongly againſt the ſhield, down he falleth into the water; for the boat is violently forced with the tide: but on each ſide of the ſhield ride two boats, furniſhed with young men, who recover him who falleth ſoon as they may. In the holidays all the ſummer the youths are exerciſed in leaping, dancing, ſhooting, wreſtling, caſting the ſtone, and practiſing their ſhields; and the maidens trip with their timbrels, and dance as long as they can well ſee. In winter, every holiday before dinner, the boars prepared for brawn are ſet to fight, or elſe bulls or bears are baited.'

Theſe were the laudable purſuits to which leiſure was devoted by our forefathers, ſo far back as the year 1130. Their immediate ſucceſſors breathed the ſame generous ſpirit. In the year 1222, the ſixth year of Henry III, we find, that certain maſters in exerciſes of this kind made a public profeſſion of their inſtructions and diſcipline, which they imparted to thoſe who were deſirous of attaining excellence and victory in theſe honourable achievements. About this period, the perſons of better rank and family introduced the play of Tennis; and erected courts or oblong edifices for the performances of the exerciſe.

About the year 1253, in the thirty-eighth year of Henry III, the Quintan was a ſport much in faſhion in almoſt every part of the kingdom. This contrivance conſiſted of an upright poſt firmly fixed in the ground, upon the top of which was a croſs piece of

* There were places ſet apart for the battles of theſe animals, as at this day, where no one was admitted without money. Theſe places, or *pits* commonly called, were ſchools, as at this day, in which people were inſtructed in the doctrines of chance, loſs and gain, betting and wagers, and particularly in the liberal art of *laying two to one*. Cock-throwing has been laudably aboliſhed; for it was a ſpecies of cruelty toward an innocent and uſeful animal; and ſuch a cruelty as would have kindled compaſſion in the heart of the rankeſt barbarian.

wood, moveable upon a ſpindle; one end of which was broad like the flat part of an halberd, while at the other end was hung a bag of ſand. The exerciſe was performed on horſeback. The maſterly performance was, when, upon the broad part being ſtruck with a lance, which ſometimes broke it, the aſſailant rode ſwiftly on, ſo as to avoid being ſtruck on the back by the bag of ſand, which turned round inſtantly upon the ſtroke given with a very ſwift motion. He who executed this feat in the moſt dexterous manner was declared victor, and the prize to which he became intitled was a peacock. But if, upon the aim taken, the contender miſcarried in ſtriking at the broadſide, his impotency of ſkill became the ridicule and contempt of the ſpectators.

Matthew Paris, ſpeaking of this manly diverſion, ſays, 'The London youths made trial of their ſtrength on horſeback, by running at the Quintan; in doing which, whoever excelled all the reſt was rewarded with a peacock.' This ſport is continued to this day in Wales; and being in uſe only upon marriages, it may be conſidered as a votive diverſion, by which theſe heroic ſpirits ſeem to wiſh, that the male iſſue of ſuch marriage may be as ſtrong, vigorous, and active, as thoſe who are at that time engaged in the celebration of this feſtive exertion of manhood. Virtuous exerciſes of this kind would be too rude and barbarous for the attendants on pleaſure in the preſent age. The hand would tremble at the weight of the javelin; and the heart would pant upon the apprehenſion of perſonal inſecurity. While theſe exertions of triumphant proweſs continued, the ſordid degeneracy of diſpoſition, the ſupple baſeneſs of temper, were unknown: for the love of country, as the Roman orator has wiſely obſerved, included all other virtues. But if we guard the palace of honour, like the brazen caſtle of Danae, with every poſſible ſecurity, importunate corruption will be ever waiting at the gate, to ſeize an opportunity of intruſion. Theſe feats of honourable conteſt were ſucceeded by the gilded banners of exhibition; and all the long train of dependents in the intereſt of indolence: for the writers of theſe times inform us, that the ſoft pleaſures of the ſtage forced the paſſes to public favour in the year 1391, and likewiſe in the year 1409; ſo that utility, which before ſtood on the right hand of pleaſure, was now ordered to withdraw for a ſeaſon. The drama, it ſeems, was attempted by a ſet of uſeleſs and inſignificant perſons called pariſh-clerks; who, becauſe they had the knowledge of the alphabet, ignorantly preſumed that this included every other ſpecies of knowledge. The ſubject was truly ſerious, the creation of the world; but the performance muſt have been ludicrous. It was, however, honoured with the attendance of noble perſonages; and royalty itſelf deigned to caſt a favourable eye upon it, for the king and queen were preſent. Theſe interludes laſted no longer than the time requiſite for the former confederacy of utility and pleaſure to reſume its powers; as when the pliable bow by being too much bent is put out of ſhape, and by its elaſticity recovers its former poſition. The lance, the ſhield, the ball, and the equeſtrian proceſſion, came forward again, and put the dramatic uſurper to flight. After this period, theſe objects of generous pleaſure ſeem to have had their audience of leave, and one general object, indeed no leſs manly than the former, to have filled their ſtations, which was archery. This had a continuance to the reign of Charles I, for we find in many hoſpitals founded in that reign, among the articles of benefaction recorded upon their walls, this ſingular proviſion, arms for the boys, which ſignified bows and arrows.

There are many places at this day, formerly reſorted to, for the practice of this noble art, diſtinguiſhed by appellations which indicate their ancient uſage; ſuch as Bremford Butts, Newington-

ington Butts, and many others of the like denomination. It appears from 33 Henry VIII, that by the intruſion of other pernicious games, archery had been for a long time diſuſed; to revive which this ſtatute was made. It ſeems that the bows of the beſt kind were made of yew; and that this wood might be readily obtained for this purpoſe, yew-trees were planted in churchyards. The ſons of thoſe only who were perſons of fortune and faſhion, if under ſeventeen years of age, were permitted to uſe ſuch bows. The words of the ſtatute are ſingular, and ran thus: 'No perſon under ſeventeen years, except he, or his father or mother, have lands or tenements to the yearly value of ten pounds, or be worth in value or moveables the ſum of forty marks ſterling, ſhall ſhoot with any bow of yew, which ſhall be bought for him, after the feaſt of our Lady next coming, under the pain to loſe and forfeit ſix ſhillings and eight-pence.' Two obſervations ariſe here upon theſe words. One, that the yew-wood, not being ſo common as other wood, might probably be ſoon found deficient, as it was the beſt wood for making bows, if not reſtrained in the uſe of it to particular ages and perſons, as young people wantonly deſtroy what is put into their hands for uſeful purpoſes. The other obſervation is, that the age of ſeventeen is by this ſtatute diſtinguiſhed as the age of diſcretion, when young people are more attentive and conſiderate in things of private concern; an age in theſe times which few ever arrive at, and ſome never. This ſtatute makes proviſion of other kinds of wood for the common people in the following manner: 'To the intent that every perſon may have bows of mean price, be it enacted, that every bowyer ſhall, for every bow that he maketh of yew, make four other bows, meet to ſhoot with, of elm, wich, haſill, aſh, or other wood apt for the ſame, under pain to loſe and forfeit for every ſuch bow ſo lacking the ſum of three ſhillings and fourpence.' It ſeems there was a ſpecies of yew at this time called elk, which wood was ſtronger and more pliant than the common yew mentioned in this ſtatute, and the price of it fixed. 'Moreover, no bowyer ſhall ſell or put to ſale to any of the king's ſubjects, any bow of yew of the tax called elk, above the price of three ſhillings and fourpence, under the pain to forfeit twenty ſhillings for every bow ſold above the ſaid price.'

From theſe ſeveral conſiderations which occur in this ſtatute, we can trace three reſplendent qualities, courage, ſtrength, and agility; which three united, inſpired two more, generoſity and magnanimity. Upon the decline of this and other poliſhed amuſements, a ſavage deformity of manners ſprung up, but ſpangled here and there with the oppoſite character of lazy opulence, which began now to erect her velvet ſtandard in defiance of chaſte and regular manners.

Toward the beginning of James the Firſt's reign, military proweſs ſeems to have ſounded a retreat *. He, to gratify the importunity of the common people, and at the ſame time to obviate his own fears upon a refuſal, publiſhed a book of ſports, in which the people had been ſome time before uſually indulged on Sunday evenings, but which had been lately prohibited. Theſe ſports conſiſted of dancing, ſinging, wreſtling, church ales, and other profanations of that day.

Charles, his ſucceſſor, wiſely, in

* It has been confidently aſſerted by ſome hiſtorians, that James was, during his whole life, ſtruck with terror upon the ſight of a drawn ſword; which was the reaſon of his great unwillingneſs in beſtowing the honour of knighthood. For at this juncture, he had ſuch a tremor upon him, that inſtead of laying the ſword upon the ſhoulder of the perſon to be knighted, he frequently would be obſerved almoſt to thruſt the point of it into the face of the party; which occaſioned thoſe about him to aſſiſt him in the direction of his hand.

the very entrance of his reign, abolished these sports. The act of Charles states the several amusements in part; by which we may conjecture what was the remainder as stated in the book of sports by James. It is necessary to transcribe that part of the act relating to this subject. 'Forasmuch as there is nothing more acceptable to God, than the true and sincere worship of him, and service according to his holy will, and that the holy keeping of the Lord's day is a principal part of the service of God, which in many places of this realm hath been, and now is, prophaned and neglected by a disorderly sort of people, in exercising and frequenting bear-baiting, bull-baiting, interludes, and common-plays, and other unlawful exercises and diversions, neglecting divine service both in their own parishes and elsewhere: be it enacted, that from and after forty days next, after the end of this session of parliament, there shall be no meetings, assemblies, or concourse of people, out of their own parishes, on the Lord's day, within this realm of England, or any the dominions thereof, for any sports or diversions whatsoever: nor any bear-baiting, bull-baiting, interludes, common plays, or other unlawful exercises or diversions, used by any person or persons within their own parishes: and that every person and persons offending in any of the said premises, shall forfeit for every offence the sum of three shillings and fourpence; the same to be employed and converted to the use of the poor of the parish where such offence shall be committed.'

All these luxury arts, considered as vehicles of pleasure; from the variety of their inventions, represent pleasure as a fleeting phantom: evincing at the same time the stability of happiness as springing from internal order. Even relex acts, pregnant with future hopes of solace and social recreation, have more true feelings in expectancy than those which arise from the object in possession. Nay, pleasure is found frequently in the imagination only: for Ixion's disappointment frequently awaits us when we advance to embrace this Juno of our desires.

Upon the whole, happiness, the only thing of intrinsic value, must arise in the heart, and be something more solid than what mere amusement can possibly supply. Amusements or diversions ought to be considered only as necessary relaxations from severer and more useful employment; and in this point of view solely they may be pursued; but they become criminal when they occupy the place of the business of life.

Characteristic Anecdotes.

Of the numerous instances of human misery, the effect of the ignorance and fanaticism of the dark ages of Europe, may be reckoned the melancholy fate of Henry IV, emperor of Germany, who was also styled Henry the elder and Henry the great. The long reign of this prince, in the eleventh century, was marked with misfortunes, which are principally ascribed to his quarrel with the clergy, and the animosities they had excited against him for having reclaimed the possessions which had been lavished upon them by his predecessors. Terrified at the anathema of the pope, he was compelled to remain three days and three nights, in the depth of winter, in the court-yard of the pope's palace at Canosa, barefooted, imploring absolution in the most humiliating terms. He was afterward dethroned by his son Henry, detained some time in prison, and reduced to the most abject poverty. In his prosperity, he had given the city of Kreuzenach, as a present, to his supposed friend Erchard bishop of Spire. In his subsequent distress, he applied to this very prelate, the sycophant of his

his proſperity, who then lived at Kreuzenach in luxurious eaſe. Maier, a German hiſtorian, relates the circumſtance in the following manner. 'The unfortunate emperor came to the caſtle in as wretched a ſtate as when he waited at the palace of Conoſa, ſtript to his ſhirt, and bare-footed. He had the attitude, voice, and humiliated aſpect of a common beggar. He looked up with a timid eye to that biſhop, who had been his moſt intimate friend in the days of his proſperity, and to whom he had been ſo laviſh of his bounties, in hopes to receive conſolation and ſupport in the countenance of his former dependant. He then glanced his eye over the ſtately dome which he himſelf had built, and ſeemed to ſay, behold my claim to commiſeration! while the briny tear trickled down his grief-worn cheek, into the wounds which the heavy chains of his rebellious ſon had inflicted. He now ventures to exclaim, with faultering accent, "I have loſt empire and hope! For the love of God throw me a morſel of bread upon the ground I have given you!" The ſupercilious and inhuman prieſt pretended that he could diſpoſe of nothing without the conſent of his chapter, and finally diſmiſſed him with an oath—By the mother of Jeſus I will not aſſiſt you.'

Such is Maier's affecting recital. The author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Hiſtorique thus records the dreadful reverſe of fortune in this once magnificent prince: 'Reduced to the laſt extremity, a wretched pennyleſs vagabond, he implored the biſhop of Spire to give him a lay prebend in his church; repreſenting, that having ſtudied ſinging, he could perform either the office of reader or of ſubchanter: it was refuſed. What an age, when an emperor, who had ſo long attracted the attention of all Europe by his victories and his ſplendour, could not obtain the loweſt ſituation in a chapter! At laſt, abandoned by all, he wrote to his ſon, to conjure him to permit the biſhop of Liege to grant him an aſylum: "Let me remain at Liege," ſaid he, "if not as an emperor, at leaſt as a refugee. Let it not be ſaid to my ſhame, or rather to yours, that I am obliged to ſeek a new aſylum *during the feſtival of Eaſter*."—The wretched emperor died at Liege in the year 1106, the victim of the ignorance and fanaticiſm of that age. His body was interred in that city, but taken up again by order of the pope, and deprived of ſepulture for five years, till his ſon Henry V, who had dethroned him, cauſed it to be inhumed at Spire, in the tomb of the emperors.'

It has been obſerved, that the Germans, for ſome years paſt, have applied to literary purſuits with the greateſt zeal and aſſiduity. A proof of this may be found in the following particulars relative to the conducting of the periodical work, entitled 'Allgemeine Literatur-Zeitung, or Journal of General Literature, publiſhed at Jena. In the year 1790, the number of writers employed in that work, including thoſe who died within the year, amounted to not leſs than three hundred and nine. Of theſe, one hundred and ſeventeen were profeſſors in the Germanic and foreign univerſities; ninety-ſix in higher or inferior offices in church and ſtate; thirteen clergymen; ſeven librarians of princes, counts, &c. ſixteen phyſicians; four doctors of muſic; ſeven who have no profeſſional character. The books reviewed in that work amounted to one thouſand eight hundred and five.—Of theſe, one thouſand three hundred and ninety-ſeven were written by Germans; four hundred and eight were foreign productions; one hundred and ſeventy-three were publiſhed by fellow-labourers. The correſponding members of literary fraternity in different parts of Europe are one hundred and thirteen in number.

An

An event, recorded in the French annals, marks the dreadfully ferocious character of the twelfth century. Thomas baron d'Omart had married Adela, the beautiful daughter of the the count de Ponthieu. In conducting her to his caſtle (his ſervants lagging behind) the baron and his lady were ſurrounded by eight of the high-born and titled plunderers with whom France was then infeſted. D'Omart made a gallant reſiſtance; but, being overpowered by numbers, he was ſeized, ſtripped, and bound to a tree, while the ſhrieks and ſtruggles of Adela were in vain exerted to ſave her from repeated diſhonour. At length, the baron's domeſtics approaching, the unhappy pair were clothed and carried back to the caſtle of the count de Ponthieu, near Abbeville. That ſavage parent heard the fatal ſtory without apparent emotion, but harboured in his mind the moſt atrocious of deſigns. A few days after, he found an opportunity to ſurpriſe, at a diſtance from her huſband, his unfortunate, but guiltleſs daughter. A large barrel had been prepared, which, when the fair Adela had been obliged to enter it, was cloſed up, and launched into the ocean, in ſight of the inhuman father. Providentially, the barrel, having caught the attention of a fiſherman, was hoiſted into a veſſel, and opened in time to ſave the life of Adela, who was ſoon reſtored to her afflicted huſband. Theſe real facts have been the foundation of more than one romance.

The following narrative, taken from the records of Languedoc, will evince the magnificence, folly, and barbarity, habitual to the nobility of the early ages: in 1174, Henry II of France called together the ſeigneurs of Languedoc, in order to mediate a peace between the count of Toulouſe and the king of Arragon. As Henry, however, did not attend, the nobles had nothing to do but emulate each other in wild magnificence, extended to inſanity. Among other inſtances the counteſs Urgel ſent to the meeting a diadem worth 4000 modern pounds, to be placed on the head of a wretched buffoon. The count of Toulouſe ſent a donation of 4000l. to a favourite knight, who diſtributed that ſum among all the poorer knights that attended the meeting. The ſeigneur Guillaume Gros de Martel gave an immenſe dinner, the viands being all cooked by the flame of wax tapers. But the ſingularly rational magnificence of count Bertrand Rimbault attracted the loudeſt applauſe: for he ſet the peaſants about Beaucaire to plough up the ſoil; and then he proudly and openly ſowed therein ſmall pieces of money, to the amount of fifteen hundred Engliſh guineas. Piqued at this princely extravagance, and determined to outdo his neighbours in ſavage brutality, if he could not in prodigality, the lord Raimond Venons ordered thirty of his moſt beautiful and valuable horſes to be tied to ſtakes, and ſurrounded with dry wood: he then heroically lighted the pile, and conſumed his favourites alive.

The literary character of the ſame century is marked by a curious pun on the name of Alexander Nequam, a good grammarian and a writer of Latin poetry. He was bred at the univerſity of Paris; and when he deſired to be re-admitted into St. Alban's Priory, the abbot anſwered, 'Si bonus iis venias; ſi *nequam nequaquam.*' Diſpleaſed at this alluſion, he ever after called himſelf Neckham.

The vanity of Lewis XIV made him liſten with avidity to the adulatory compliments of his courtiers; and, to the diſgrace of literature, men of the moſt illuſtrious talents were not wanting to adminiſter the pleaſing incenſe. In the year 1677, Lewis appointed Racine and Boileau

to write the history of his reign. In that very year, the places which that vain-glorious monarch besieged fell almost immediately into his hands; but neither of the two royal historians had accompanied their sovereign in this expedition. When he returned, he expressed his surprise at their want of curiosity to see the great events they were to describe. 'What!' said the king, 'had you no desire to see a siege? The journey was not a long one.'—'Sir,' said Boileau, 'our tailors could not work fast enough: we bespoke some military clothes, but before they were brought home, the places that your majesty besieged were taken.'—This ingenious answer was very favourably received by the king, who, however, gave them to understand, that he expected them to attend him in the next campaign.—Two poets following an army, that they might be eye-witnesses of battles and sieges, without taking any part in the war, is certainly a very ridiculous incident; and the preparations for their journey, and the manner in which they atchieved it, soon became the subject of much merriment and raillery.

In the mouth of Ivucktoke Bay, on the coast of Labrador, is a small island, near the north shore of which a very tragical scene happened about fifty years ago. A number of Esquimaux Indians were then encamped upon it, when a dispute arose between two young men, about the wife of one of them, with whom the other was in love, and insisted upon having her from him. High words ensued; the respective friends of the two men took part with them, and not being able to settle the matter amicably, they at length had recourse to their bows: their arrows flew swiftly until all were expended; they then attacked each other with their knives. Neither age nor sex were spared in this civil dissension. The feeble grandsire, the tender mother, and the infant at her breast fell alike undistinguished victims of frantic rage and ungoverned fury. Two men only, and they of opposite parties, survived the bloody contest: when each, surveying the dreadful carnage that every where surrounded him, and struck with the thought of what would become of himself, if he killed his antagonist, agreed to desist.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ODE TO SLEEP.

SOFT Sleep! profoundly-pleasing power,
Sweet patron of the peaceful hour,
O listen from thy calm abode,
And hither wave thy magic rod.
Extend thy silent, soothing sway,
And charm the canker care away;
Whether thou lov'st to glide along,
Attended by an airy throng
Of gentle dreams and smiles of joy,
Such as adorn the wanton boy,
Or pleasures to the fancy bring,
That suit the hero and the king;
The glittering host, the groaning plain,
The clang of arms and victor's train;
Or, if a milder vision please,
Present the happy scenes of peace;
Plump Autumn blushing all around,
Rich Industry with (toil imbrown'd)
Content, with brow serenely gay,
And genial Art's refulgent ray.

VERSES on an airy and pleasant Situation, near a commercial Town, being surrounded by new Buildings.

[From 'Poems on several Occasions,' by MARIA LOGAN.]

THERE was a time! that time the muse bewails,
When Sunny Hill enjoy'd refreshing gales;
When Flora sported in its fragrant bow'rs,
And strew'd with lib'ral hand her sweetest flow'rs!
Now sable vapours, pregnant with disease,
Clog the light pinions of the Southern breeze;
Each verdant plant assume a dusky hue,
And sooty atoms taint the morning dew.
No more the lily rears her spotless head,
Health, verdure, beauty, fragrance, all are fled;
Sulphureous clouds deform the rising day,
Nor own the pow'r of Sol's meridian ray;

While ſickly damps, from Aire's polluted ſtream,
Quench the pure radiance of his parting beam.
Theſe are thy triumphs, Commerce!—theſe thy ſpoils!
Yet ſordid mortals glory in their toils,
Spurn the pure joys which ſimple Nature yields,
Her breezy hills, dark groves, and verdant fields,
With cold indifference, view her blooming charms,
And give, youth, eaſe, and health to thy enfeebling arms.

PROLOGUE, ſpoken by Miſs HARRISON, at the Theatre at Boſton, in America, previouſly to the Repreſentation of a Play for the Benefit of the unfortunate Americans at Algiers.

AS on the parching boſom of the plain
Deſcend the genial ſhowers of kindly rain,
As the blue tint of Heaven with fragrant breeze
Diſpels the pallid ſpectres of diſeaſe,
So through the wounded mind and thrilling ſenſe
Flows the ſweet balm of bleſt benevolence
To the loſt wretch by daily tortures torn,
Who wakes to weep, and only lives to mourn;
Can with electric touch new powers impart,
And warm to infant life the palſied heart;
Bid the rais'd eye unwonted language ſpeak,
And drops of tranſport bathe the reddening cheek;
With looks that bleſs the ſaving hand regard,
And give to feeling worth a rich reward.
That rich reward be yours—whoſe boſoms ſhare
The ſufferer's wrong, and feel his patient tear;
Who, while your Powell's * generous heart expands,
While pity pleads, and ſocial right commands,
From your full ſtores the liberal boon afford,
And with the wretched ſhare the plenteous board;
With him who once in fortune's ſplendour ſhone,
And call'd the hoſpitable roof his own,
Saw his lov'd offſpring climb his parent knee,
And weep to hear the tale of miſery.
Perhaps by Valour's glorious fervor led,
In field of Fame the fetter'd exile bled,
And with your Patriot Hero bravely roſe
The ſcourge of your's and ſacred Freedom's foes.
Then, if that Patriot Hero claim your love,
While diſtant realms his deathleſs deeds approve,
If ſtill he ſhines his grateful Country's boaſt,
The central Sun that lights her brilliant coaſt,
From the dark dungeon of ſupreme deſpair,
His bleeding friends, his priſon'd comrades hear:
Let not that arm the grinding fetter feel
Which dauntleſs Freedom brac'd with nerves of ſteel:
Let not the villain ſcourge diſgrace the brave,
Nor free Columbians wear the ſtamp of ſlave.
And you, ye Civic Band, whoſe peaceful days
Diſclaim the trophied field and warrior's praiſe,
Whoſe ſocial virtues gentler cares beſtow
On the ſoft 'plainings of domeſtic woe!
If e'er the ſpell of powerful charms could move,
While fond enchantment melts the ſoul to love,
Bids the fix'd eye's expreſſive glance impart
The ſofteſt ſecret of the ſpeaking heart,
With kindred ſoul regard the Lover's prayer,
Whom fiercer pangs their cruel abſence tear;
And while the chaſte Almeria's fancied ſighs
Call the bright dew-drop from reſiſtleſs eyes,
Let real woes one liquid gem receive,
Let real want the boon of bounty have,
Since e'en your pleaſures form a kind pretence
To deal the bleſſings of Benevolence.

* The Manager.

EULOGY OF VIRGIL.

[From Roman Portraits, a Poem, by R. Jephſon, Eſq.]

HUSH'D be each ruder breath and clamorous tongue!
Apollo liſtens to the Mantuan's ſong.
You chief, who own bright inſpiration's flame,
With mighty Homer's palm divide his claim.
Favourite with me of all the harmonious quire,
A child I felt him, and a man admire:
If grief or care my anxious mind engage,
Secure of eaſe, I ſearch great Maro's page;
For deep and rankling, ſure, muſt be the wounds,
That find no balm in his enchanting ſounds.
As Jeſſe's ſon Saul's frenzy could compoſe,
The madneſs ſinking, as the muſic roſe;
As oil, diffus'd with philoſophic ſkill,
At once the agitated wave can ſtill;
His tuneful magic o'er my ſenſes glides,
The charm prevails, and all my pain ſubſides.
In the wild conflict of Eliza's breaſt,
Ill-fated fair, what wond'rous ſkill's expreſs'd!
For thee, Sidonian queen, enſnar'd, betray'd,
Like thy fond Anna, mourns each gentle maid;
Turns with diſdain from Jove's profan'd abodes,
The obdurate Trojan, and conſpiring gods.
A royal wretch, by love, by ſhame purſued!
Cenſure, by milder Pity ſinks ſubdued:
Her woman's frame in ſuch a whirlwind toſt,
The venial frailty in the feeling's loſt:
We join the tempeſt of her frantic tongue;
And cry—Rocks, ſtorms, and jutter gods, revenge the wrong!
Poets, who meditate the lofty theme,
To win the crowded theatre's eſteem,
At this perennial fount the ſecret ſeek,
To bid the paſſions, not the fancy, ſpeak:
No languid apathy, in pomp of phraſe,
Here lulls the anguiſh tragic woe ſhould raiſe;
His clew the mazy labour can controul,
And wind through all the labyrinth of the ſoul.
In other ſtrains than his, who could endure
The rugged plough deſcrib'd, the field's manure:
The humbler duties of the ſhepherd's toil,
And the coarſe cares that tame a ſtubborn ſoil?
As hardeſt blocks the Phidian chiſels chooſe,
The rudeſt ſubjects charm by Maro's muſe:
He, like the lord of all the extended land,
Superior and unſtain'd alone can ſtand.
Beneath the maſter's eye the wain moves on,
The hinds appear to ſweat, the ſteer to groan;
Briſk dryades, light fauns, and ſatyrs lead,
While ſwarthy Pan inſpires the jocund reed;
Abundant Ceres ſmiles, the vales rejoice,
And every rural god obeys his voice.
While not unſeen the playful heifer feeds
On the green herbage of the flowery meads,
Then nature's ſting the lordly bull conſtrains
To drive his bellowing rival o'er the plains:
The green-ey'd monſter brutal beaſts can move,
To rage, like Shakſpeare's Moor, with jealous love.
Hark! how the neighbouring caves are heard to moan
With the deep thunder of his ſmother'd groan!
Behold his ſpurning heel, his theſt's broad ſize,
Like ſtars with blood bedimm'd, his glowing eyes!
We ſhare the ſturdy combat from afar,
And own the terrors of the horny war.
With dewlaps gor'd, and lacerated ſides,
Remote his ſhame the vanquiſh'd champion hides;
Yet one laſt look indignant caſts around,
To view the miſtreſs loſt; and hateful ground;
Then, ſtern receding from the hard-fought plain,
Threatens fierce ſtrife with mightier force again.
Or, when the mute prone creatures of the ſoil,
By plagues ſubdued, reſign their uſeful toil,
His plaintive lays their ſecret woes reveal,
And what they cannot ſpeak, our breaſt muſt feel.

Majeſtic bard! as golden ſkies beſtow
A mellow tinge on humble vales below,
Warm'd by thy lyre, where'er its rays deſcend,
Richneſs and radiance on the themes attend:
From Tityrus, beneath the beech reclin'd,
To Turnus ſhrinking from the death deſign'd,
Some kindred muſe breathes in each tuneful line,
And the verſe glows with all the aſſiſting nine.
Now, near two thouſand years ſince Virgil's birth,
The ſun, grown older, has illumin'd earth,
And brightly his inſpiring beams has ſhed
O'er genius living, and the illuſtrious dead,
Yet ſtill ſupreme, unequall'd, and alone,
Sits the great Mantuan on the epic throne.

EULOGY OF HORACE.

[From the Same.]

PERSUASIVE Horace! how his varying lay
Can daſh bold vice, or with light foibles play!
The taſk of reformation he beguiles,
Alike inſtructing, if he frowns or ſmiles;
Till, by his eaſy precepts wiſer grown,
Men pardon others' faults, and mend their own;
They find fierce paſſions by calm ſenſe withſtood,
And ſmall the labour to be juſt and good.
No frowning virtue in his ſtrain appears,
To wring the heart, or ſtain the cheek with tears;
But gently ſoothing, of benign addreſs,
And ſtill more bleſs'd, as moſt employ'd to bleſs.
Bold daring crimes avenging law purſues,
Leaving man's foibles to the ſportive muſe.
And deep they feel, who ſin 'gainſt reaſon's rule,
The pains and penalties of ridicule:
But injudicious ſatire in a ſtorm,
Drives to deſpair the wretch it ſhould reform;
With brazen front he ſtalks, abaſh'd no more,
And braves the ſhame he tried to ſhun before.
The black miſdeeds of execrable men,
Let cords or axes puniſh, not the pen:
When fetters clank, and dungeons yawn in vain,
Adieu the phyſic of the iambic ſtrain!
What novice now would waſte his muſe and time,
To tame a modern Frenchman by a rhyme?
Can the ſoft lute, or ſilver-ſounded lyre,
Arreſt the roaring of the tiger's ire?
Ev'n full-tongu'd Juvenal's imperial rage
Would fly the nation, and abjure the age.
Be true to virtue, bards, in all you write,
But never ſtrive to waſh an Ethiop white;
Obſerve the buds of folly as they grow,
And ſage, like Horace, nip them ere they blow.
When crown'd with roſes in Anacreon's bower,
The Paphian Queen and Bacchus own the hour,
What ſurly cynic can the feaſt reprove,
Or dare profane the joys of wine and love?
But if in Pindar's tone he pours along,
The flood he paints rolls thund'ring thro' his ſong;
The Theban's genius all his ſoul inſpires,
And lifts above the example he admires.
Let youthful poets own the critic's ſkill,
And climb with him the ſteep Parnaſſian hill,
Where crags, and thorns, and bitter ſprings abound,
With ſcarce one flow'ry ſpot of pregnant ground;
So worn and harrow'd by the ancient's toil,
The tardy modern hardly gleans the ſoil;
But finds, too late, the imagin'd fragrant ſtore
Borne off by bees, who ſuck'd its ſweets before:
Yet guiding Flaccus ſtill his hopes may raiſe;
The path he knows, and points it to true praiſe.
Pleas'd with what heaven will grant or diſallow,
Eternal ſunſhine gilds his cheerful brow;
In idle murmurs no vain hour he'll waſte,
But claſps the preſent joy, nor mourns the paſt.
Bleſs'd moraliſt! whoſe winning manners gain'd
The eaſe of freedom where a deſpot reign'd;
Wiſe ſenſualiſt! who ſcorn'd ſuperfluous wealth,
And found true luxury in peace and health.

EULOGY

EULOGY OF OVID.

[From the Same.]

'MIDST many a nameleſs ſon of vulgar earth,
Sulmo could boaſt ſhe gave her Ovid birth.
Together twin'd, his learned brow diſplays
The lover's myrtle and the poet's bays.
Though each fair ſcience ſtor'd his fertile mind,
Still roy'd his copious fancy unconfin'd.
To fix his thoughts on Themis' crabbed book,
What fruitleſs pains his anxious father took?
While ſofter Cytherea ſmiling cry'd,
'To learn my laws, be all thy care apply'd.'
As ſudden coruſcations quick and bright,
His wit ſurpriſes with a dazzling light;
Whate'er the ſubject, barren, rude, or mean,
That fire emits its rays, and gilds the ſcene:
On Pontus' dreary ſhore his breaſt it warms,
Nor loſes e'en in baniſhment its charms.
In vain thy plaintive numbers were addreſs'd,
To ſoften one unmitigable breaſt;
But be thy crime what malice may believe,
Worſe was his crime, who knew not to forgive.
Led from his boyhood through the Cyprian ſchool,
In love's ſoft myſteries he inſtructs by rule;
Maſter of wiles that lure the amorous heart,
Nature's firſt impulſe feels the chains of art.
Avoid the dangerous teacher, maids, avoid!
Pleaſing too much, you pleaſe to be deſtroy'd:
But, melting virgins muſt decline the ſong,
Leſt ſhe who reads ſhould be no virgin long:
Timely forewarn'd, from the ſmooth verſe refrain!
'Tis honied poiſon, 'tis delicious bane.
The lover's eye, your breaſts when paſſions ſwell,
The unprompted ſecret of themſelves will tell.
Fair nymphs, whom truth and genuine bluſhes arm,
Diſdain a taught ſophiſticating charm!
In adamantine links *this* charm will bind,
A graceful outſide, with a cultur'd mind;
And half your care, the former to improve,
Turn'd to the heart, ſecures the ſoul of love.
Rapture's a haſty tranſient flame at beſt,
But warm eſteem an ever-biding gueſt;
Rapture a meteor, at its birth expires,
Eſteem new vigour with its age acquires:
She who the firſt prefers, prefers amiſs;
A moment's tranſport to a life of biiſs.
Why rolls in vain the ever-rolling eye?
Why fails the ſmile rehears'd, the obedient ſigh?
Think you, can flaming cinnabar outſpeak
The true ſuffuſion of th' ingenuous cheek?
Or could the wiſe Creating Power intend
His daintieſt work for minerals to mend?
A mien compos'd with all an artiſt's care,
Invites not, but exclaims aloud, beware!
Behold the fruitleſs preparation loſt:
She leaſt inſpires a flame, who feigns it moſt.
Beauty's falſe friends, avaunt! or, ſcorn'd, repair
Where riot roars, and orgied torches glare!
Mark, how the flowery tribes preſerve unmix'd
The tints wiſe nature on their birth has fix'd:
No gariſh die the blue-vein'd violet ſhows,
Nor vies the baſhful ſnowdrop with the roſe.
To no one colour various beauty's bound;
What different charms in different hues are found!
Fire to the eye let ruddy cheeks impart;
But pale mild languor melts into the heart.
Enough to charm, the modeſt ear may chooſe
In the chaſte labours of gay Ovid's muſe,
When themes ſublime more lofty ſtrains demand,
The ſwelling chords confeſs a ſtatelier hand:
In floods of day ſee Sol's bright palace riſe;
See his raſh ſon hurl'd flaming down the ſkies:
How Pindus, Athos, hot Olympus glow!
How hiſſes Rhodope through piles of ſnow!
See, the great ſire of gods and men alarm'd,
And 'gainſt combuſtion, with combuſtion arm'd.—
His ſounding pinion holds a temperate flight,
Skims not the ground, nor ſoars beyond the ſight;
More ſkill'd to paint the paſſions, than to move,
Youth will admire him, wiſer age approve.

PROCEEDINGS *of the Fourth* SESSION *of the Seventeenth Parliament of* Great Britain: *Continued from Vol. XCIV, Page* 381.

ON Monday, March 10, in the houſe of commons, Mr. Grey roſe, and moved for a bill to indemnify miniſters for permitting the landing of the Heſſian forces on the Iſle of Wight. He obſerved, that he felt it a queſtion of ſo much magnitude, involving the moſt ſacred principles of the conſtitution, and the very exiſtence of our liberties, that he deemed it his duty to bring the queſtion forward repeatedly, until the temper of the times, and the alteration of circumſtances, would render his propoſition ſucceſsful, and withdraw the ſanction of the houſe from a precedent ſo pregnant with danger to the conſtitution. What he had contended for on a former night, was, that the introduction of foreign troops into the country, without the conſent of parliament, was contrary to law; and in this poſition, he ſaid, the ſpirit of the bill of rights, and the act of ſettlement, the expreſs proviſions of the mutiny bill, and all the declarations of the legiſlature relating to ſuch ſubjects, would bear him out.

He expatiated on the dangers which, under a wicked, or an ill-adviſed prince, might reſult to the country, by unlimitedly ſanctioning ſuch an extenſion of the prerogative, in the inſtance of an immenſe body of continental troops being called into the country, ſuch as his majeſty, according to the doctrine held by the other ſide of the houſe, would, by reaſon of his electoral capacity, and connection with the German principalities, have it in his power to do; and, in ſuch a caſe, the power of controul in the houſe (as ſtated by the right hon. gentleman) in commanding the ſupplies, would be ſo nugatory, and weak, that the argument did not deſerve ſe ious refutation; in that caſe not only the houſe, but the whole legiſlature, and the conſtitution, would be at the mercy of the ſovereign. What he would now propoſe, as the beſt thing which could be done after what had paſſed, would be a bill of indemnity to miniſters for their conduct on the occaſion, a proceeding, which could neither hurt their pride, nor their conſiſtency, and could not be objected to in point of inconvenience. He diſclaimed all idea of diſtruſting the deſigns of his preſent majeſty or miniſters, but would wiſh to withdraw the ſanction of parliament from a precedent, which might hereafter be uſed to the injury of the country. He then moved, 'for leave to bring in a bill to indemnify thoſe perſons who had adviſed his majeſty to order the debarkation of Heſſian troops, &c.'

Mr. Francis, after ſeconding the motion, obſerved, that ſuch a precedent, if eſtabliſhed, would go to wound the conſtitution in its vital parts, 'and extend the prerogative in ſuch a degree, as that the liberties of the ſubject would be inſecure for a day.

Mr. T. Grenville oppoſed the motion. He was of opinion, that ſuch a power was properly veſted in the crown, for the purpoſes of the defence and ſafety of the country, and inſtanced caſes, in which a ſtrict obſervance of the forms recommended by the hon. gentleman might be attended with the higheſt degree of danger.

Mr. ſerjeant Adair ſupported the motion. That the power of calling in foreign troops, he ſaid, was clearly illegal, was evident from the proviſions of the different militia acts, by which the king was prevented even from calling out the militia without acquainting, and, in ſome caſes, gaining the conſent of parliament. In concluſion he obſerved, that were the meaſure in queſtion defended on the grounds of neceſſity, or political expediency (on either of which he thought it very well might) he certainly would not ſupport the preſent motion; but hearing it argued on the grounds of legal precedent, he felt it his duty to act as he did.

Mr. Anſtruther, Mr. Powys, the attorney-general, and Mr. Pitt oppoſed the motion; and Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Yorke, and Mr. Fox ſupported it. On a diviſion the numbers were, for the motion 41; againſt it 170; majority 29.

On Monday, March 17. General Fitzpatrick roſe, to make a motion relative to the captivity and treatment of M. la Fayette, which he prefaced with a ſpeech, wherein he expatiated on the great ſervices rendered by the character in queſtion to the cauſe of real liberty and order, his loyalty to his ſovereign, and his attachment to the conſtitution eſtabliſhed in France in 1789, for which he ſacrificed every thing. He contended that not only the magnanimity and humanity of the Britiſh nation were in this caſe appealed to, but alſo its juſtice and policy, both of which were very deeply implicated. He alluded to the declaration made at Toulon

in ill

in favour of the conſtitution of 1789, after which it would be inconſiſtent to ſuffer its chief promoter and defender to languiſh in the dungeons of one of our allies; and alſo to the declarations made by the Pruſſian monarch, that M. la Fayette was not his priſoner, but that of the combined monarchs in general. The national policy, he ſaid, was concerned, inaſmuch as we could in no way better ſhew the ſincerity of our declaration than by delivering the perſon in queſtion. At the ſame time he wiſhed to include the preſent companions in his ſufferings, the three members of the conſtituent aſſembly, who eſcaped with him from France, meſſrs. Lameth, &c. He then moved, 'An addreſs to his majeſty, ſtating the opinion of the houſe, that the detention of meſſrs. la Fayette, Lameth, &c. by his majeſty's ally, the king of Pruſſia, was injurious to the cauſe of the combined powers, and beſeeching his majeſty to take ſuch ſteps therein as to his royal wiſdom ſhall ſeem moſt proper.'

Colonel Tarleton ſeconded the motion.

The chancellor of the exchequer ſaid, that in the preſent inſtance there was not a caſe made out ſtrong enough to warrant the interpoſition of the houſe. He ſtated the particulars of the capture, which were by no means extraordinary: the general of an hoſtile army was found within the lines of the enemy, and accordingly taken priſoner. In his opinion the whole was perfectly conſiſtent with the rights of war and the law of nations. Neither did he agree with the hon. gentleman in thinking that M. la Fayette's conduct, or the conſequences of it, deſerved well, either from his own country or mankind in general. He begged leave to diſclaim that this country had any power in the diſpoſal of the character in queſtion; and viewing the ſubject as he did, he muſt reſiſt the motion.

Mr. Burke ſpoke warmly againſt it. He conſidered M. la Fayette as the chief author of all the horrid calamities which had reſulted to France ſince the revolution, and that he had no claim whatever on the compaſſion of his majeſty. Forgiveneſs for his conduct toward this country in the American war, was all that he had a right to expect, and that he believed was already granted him.

Mr. Fox, Mr. Grey, Mr. R. Thornton, and Mr. W. Smith ſpoke alſo for the motion; and Mr. Ryder againſt it. On a diviſion it was negatived by 153 againſt 43.

In the houſe of lords, on Tueſday the 18th, the earl of Guildford roſe, to take a review of the treaties on the table. He firſt obſerved, that it was the privilege, and always had been the practice of parliament, to interfere in matters of national engagement, ſuch as he looked upon treaties to be. He quoted two precedents of this nature, the one in the reign of queen Anne, when the houſe of commons addreſſed the crown againſt making a peace with France, while Spain remained under her dominion; and the other in the reign of his late majeſty, when both houſes of parliament petitioned the king, that no treaty might be made, unleſs it ſecured to us an unlimited navigation to the Weſt Indies. By theſe precedents his lordſhip contended, the houſe had a right to diſcuſs and diſapprove of the treaties, if they were found to be, what he inſiſted they were, ruinous, dangerous, and unneceſſary to this country. His lordſhip claſſed all the treaties under two different heads; thoſe with the Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, the Landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtadt, and the Margrave of Baden, being ſubſidiary treaties, they were, in his opinion, the leaſt objectionable. The others he called general treaties, forming ſtrong alliances with the courts of Vienna, Berlin, Peterſburgh, &c.

The treaty with the king of Sardinia his lordſhip ſelected for his particular animadverſion. It laid England under great obligation, without the ſmalleſt expectation of benefit, independent of the ſum of two hundred thouſand pounds granted to his Sardinian majeſty, for the defence of his own country, in which we certainly had no concern. We pledged ourſelves not to make peace with France, till Savoy was reſtored to him, as if his majeſty would not have gladly accepted of the grant, without that additional article. All the treaties ſhewed evidently that we were fighting for our allies, and upon principles that had been denied in the beginning of our war with France. His lordſhip having dwelt on theſe points for ſome time, moved, that it is the opinion of this houſe, that the treaties which his majeſty has been adviſed to contract, are againſt the intereſts of this country, and founded on motives repeatedly diſavowed by his majeſty's miniſters.

Lord Hawkeſbury ſaid, that the meaſures of adminiſtration had not varied in their conduct toward France, till ſhe had declared her intention of overturning all the governments in Europe. After having conquered a ſtate, her next ſtep was

to

to do what they had done in their own country, ſeize all property whatever, and put all provifions and merchandiſe to be diſpoſed of only at the prices, and for the purpoſes, they choſe to fix. This they had done in Flanders; this they had done in Savoy, and would continue to do wherever they attained any territorial acquiſitions. The ſubjugation of one ſtate enabled them to conquer another.

Upon theſe grounds, it was neceſſary to draw all the nations of Europe into a league againſt the common enemy. He lamented that there were not more treaties: he wiſhed there were more nations to form alliances with. He defended the treaty with Sardinia as one of the moſt judicious; for it was of the utmoſt importance to prevent the French from obtaining poſſeſſion of a country which was the key of Italy! Were they once maſter of that, what would become of our trade there?

Lord Carnarvon, lord Mansfield, and the duke of Leeds ſpoke againſt the motion, and lord Lauderdale and the marquis of Lanſdown for it. It was negatived by 96 againſt 9.

On Monday, March 24, in the houſe of commons, Mr. Sheridan roſe to move, 'That an addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, praying that he would order to be laid before the houſe a copy of a letter written by the ſecretary of ſtate, dated Whitehall, March 14, to the lords lieutenant of the ſeveral counties, with the plans thereto annexed, &c.' This motion was made, in order to bring before the houſe, on a future day, the conſideration of the important ſubject of voluntary contributions. The motion was agreed to.

On Tueſday, March 25, Mr. ſecretary Dundas preſented a meſſage from his majeſty, acquainting the houſe, that his majeſty, for the more effectually preſerving and guarding the kingdom againſt the attacks of the common enemy, had ordered an augmentation of his land forces, the eſtimate of which he ordered to be laid before the houſe; and alſo for the ſame deſirable ends, he deemed it expedient to take meaſures for levying a large additional force, to act in particular parts of the kingdom, if neceſſity required, and that his majeſty relied on the fidelity of parliament, and the zeal and affection of his people, for aſſiſtance to carry ſuch meaſures into effect.—On the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, it was agreed to take this meaſure into conſideration the next day.

Mr. Adam then reſumed the ſubject which he had introduced on a former occaſion, reſpecting the propriety of aſſimilating the judicial proceedings, in criminal caſes, in the united kingdoms of England and Scotland. As this ſubject was then ſo amply diſcuſſed, (*See Vol. XCIV. page* 137, 139, 299, 373) it is unneceſſary to repeat here the arguments urged by Mr. Adam on the preſent occaſion, or to enter into any detail of the arguments againſt his motion, which was, That a ſelect committee be appointed to take into conſideration ſo much of the criminal law of Scotland as related to the crimes of leaſing-making, or ſedition, the right of appeal, of a new trial, the competency of witneſſes, law of evidence, power of the lord advocate, the propoſition of introducing a grand jury into that ſyſtem, &c. and to report the ſame with their opinions thereon to the houſe.—On a diviſion, the motion was loſt by a majority of 77 to 24.

On Wedneſday, March 26, the order of the day, for taking his majeſty's meſſage into conſideration, being read, Mr. ſecretary Dundas ſaid, he would at preſent content himſelf with moving for an addreſs in anſwer to the meſſage. His majeſty had ſimply ſtated the deſigns of the enemy, without either exciting unneceſſary alarm, or lulling into thoughtleſs ſecurity. Whether the real deſign of the common enemy was to attack our allies or our territories abroad, or to invade this country, it was of little importance to enquire. Our beſt protection againſt all their ſchemes would be in a complete preparation to receive them, as, even if they ſhould make no attempt, the expence and inconvenience which individuals might endure would be more than compenſated for by the additional ſecurity the country would enjoy. He would, therefore, conclude by moving an anſwer to the meſſage, ſtating, that his majeſty might rely on the cordial co-operation of his faithful commons, in carrying the general purpoſes of the meſſage into effect, and particularly in making the requiſite proviſions for the internal defence of the kingdom.

Mr. Fox acknowledged that he ſaw little objection to the addreſs, except that it was too particular in pledging the houſe to an increaſe of the army, which would be an addition to the power of the crown, when no ſpecific reaſon for that increaſe ſeemed at preſent to exiſt. He could not, however, ſtill help thinking, that theſe applications to the lords-lieutenants, without the previous conſent of parliament,

were

were contrary to the ſpirit, if not the letter, of the conſtitution; and on this account, thoſe who were moſt eager for the proſecution of the war would be juſtified in not ſubſcribing a ſhilling toward it. The addreſs, however, did not refer to this meaſure in particular; and therefore he ſhould vote for it.

The propoſal for theſe ſubſcriptions could be legalized only by paſſing a bill to enable the king to receive them. He did not think it worth his while to deſtroy the unanimity of the houſe by objecting to the words 'juſt and neceſſary war,' in the body of the addreſs; though he hoped it would be underſtood, that he ſtill retained his ſentiments upon it. When his hon. friend (Mr. Sheridan) ſhould bring forward his motion on the ſubſcriptions, he would then be prepared to ſtate his reaſons for their illegality; but he thought it would be improper to bring it forward as an amendment to the addreſs.

Mr. Sheridan ſaid, that nothing ſhould alter his determination to bring this matter forward, but an avowal from the miniſtry that the meaſure he reprobated was improper. That retractation from their having adviſed the crown to ſend this meſſage, and from the addreſs in anſwer to it, he fancied they were diſpoſed to grant. If ſo, he would not preſs his motion. At the ſame time, before he ſat down he would remark, that ſuffering the words 'juſt and neceſſary' to ſtand part of the addreſs, was in his opinion retracting the ſentiments which thoſe with whom he acted entertained of the war; and he therefore wiſhed his right hon. friend (Mr. Fox) had moved an amendment, omitting them.

The chancellor of the exchequer declared, that he felt great ſatisfaction at the appearance of unanimity which the houſe preſented; but at the ſame time ſaid, he could not agree to purchaſe it at the expence of an erroneous ſtatement of the queſtion before the houſe. It had been very truly ſaid, that this meſſage had no particular reference to the ſubſcriptions; but the obvious reaſon for that was, becauſe it was not requiſite to take any ſuch notice of them. The legality of voluntary ſubſcriptions to ſupport the king, could be ſupported by ſtatute law, by legal and political authority, and by uniform and conſtant practice in all wars; and this he was ready to ſhew, when the queſtion was agitated. He would ſhortly preſent to the houſe an eſtimate of the expence of the corps which were entering into actual ſervice; and as to the volunteer companies, he intended to bring in a bill, ſubjecting them to military diſcipline, and giving them pay, when in actual ſervice. If parliament ſhould ſanction theſe meaſures, he hoped it would be underſtood that he entertained no doubt as to the legality of the voluntary ſubſcriptions. And with regard to the laſt remark of the hon. gentleman (Mr. Sheridan) he would ſtill ſay, that this was one of the moſt juſt and neceſſary wars in which the country was ever engaged.

Mr. Fox then roſe to move an amendment, by leaving out the words 'juſt and neceſſary;' and entered into a defence of the conduct he had adopted previouſly to the commencement of the war.

After a deſultory converſation, Mr. Fox's amendment was negatived without a diviſion, and the motion for the addreſs carried; upon which Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he would bring forward his motion on Friday.

The chancellor of the exchequer then moved for leave to bring in a bill, ſimilar to that brought in in the year 1782, for permitting perſons to arms themſelves for the defence of the towns and coaſt. Leave was given.

On Friday, March 28, Mr. Sheridan roſe to make his promiſed motion on the ſubject of voluntary contributions. He prefaced it with a ſpeech of very conſiderable length, in which he contended that the meaſure reſorted to by miniſters, in cauſing his majeſty to apply to his ſubjects on any pretext whatever for money, otherwiſe than through that houſe, was not only directly againſt the ſpirit of the conſtitution, but againſt the very letter of the ſtatute law.

In ſubſtantiating theſe allegations, he was neceſſarily obliged to go into a very minute, legal, and hiſtorical detail of the different precedents and the practices which had formerly obtained, and that bore a ſimilitude to the preſent queſtion.—He dwelt particularly on the caſe of Mr. Oliver St. John, who, in the year 1615, in the reign of James I, remonſtrated in the moſt conſtitutional and argumentative language againſt ſuch a practice, which at that period was enforced, and for which Mr. St. John was ſentenced by that odious court the ſtar-chamber, to a very heavy fine, and impriſonment, during the king's pleaſure.

The particular ſtatute, which he aſſerted was directly in the face of ſuch a practice, was that of the 13th of Charles II, which

which legalized ſuch ſubſcriptions at that particular period, in limited ſums, for a ſpecific purpoſe, and when that was anſwered, the ſtatute declared them to be illegal afterward.

He concluded with the following motion, 'That it is a dangerous and unconſtitutional meaſure for the people of this country to make any loan, ſubſcription, or benevolence to the crown, to be uſed for any public purpoſe, without the previous conſent of parliament.'

The Attorney-general ſaid, that he had always thought the diſcuſſion of abſtract queſtions was improper, and that idea had guided him in his vote on the queſtion of the Heſſian troops being landed in this country: there was no neceſſity for diſcuſſing the point; and therefore to diſcuſs it was improper. When the preſent ſubject was brought forward on a former night, he confeſſed that what he heard ſurpriſed him. He did not decide in his own mind, however, until he had examined the ſubject; but, having done ſo, he owned his ſurpriſe was increaſed, that gentlemen ſhould now hold doctrines ſo oppoſite to what had paſſed in the year 1782; and he defied the ingenuity of man to ſhew that the preſent meaſure was different from the meaſure taken by miniſters in 1782, in the light in which gentlemen on the other ſide endeavoured to place it; and he would undertake to ſhew, that the opinions of lords Camden, Aſhburton, and others, on the caſe of 1778, did not in the leaſt degree apply to the caſe now in queſtion. He paid a compliment to Mr. Fox, who joined in that opinion, and who, he believed, had motives as pure in favour of the Conſtitution as any man in the kingdom, although he often differed from him in the application of his principles. He concluded by moving the previous queſtion.

Mr. Fox introduced a long ſpeech in favour of the original motion, by endeavouring to exculpate himſelf from a charge of inconſiſtency, which he underſtood was brought againſt him for having ſupported a meaſure in 1782, ſimilar to the preſent he now oppoſed.

After all the clamour which had been attempted to be raiſed upon the ſubject of his conduct in 1782, he was perſuaded that the ſlighteſt attention to the circumſtances of the caſe, and to the conduct of thoſe who now ſo warmly reprobated him, would be ſufficient to evince that no ſuch ſuppoſed inconſiſtency exiſted in point of fact. The meaſure which was then brought forward, upon examination would be found in no degree to reſemble that which was now the object of cenſure. In a word, the letter which had been then circulated thro' the country by the cabinet, of which he had the honour of being a member, did not contain any ſolicitation for a ſubſcription; on the contrary, its ſole object was to conſult the people as to the propriety of their arming for the purpoſe of internal defence; and if the preſent plan had gone no farther than that, it ſhould have met with his moſt cordial approbation. Nay, more—it ought to be remembered, that nothing was done in conſequence of that requiſition; whereas at preſent a ſubſcription had actually been entered upon, and was now going forward.

It had been urged, that the men who had reprobated a ſubſcription in 1778, had concurred in the propriety of one in the year 1782; becauſe, in the former caſe, the forces to be raiſed were to be at the diſpoſal of the crown—whereas, in the other, they were to be ſubject to the controul of parliament. But while he admitted the fact of this difference, he muſt take leave to deny the principles on which the attorney-general had founded it. It was derived from the eſſential and irreconcilable diſſimilarity between the two caſes in queſtion; which was ſo obvious, that it had influenced the opinion of ten out of the eleven of the cabinet, of which number it then conſiſted; among whom were lord Aſhburton, lord Camden, and the marquis of Rockingham; all of whom, and the laſt in particular, had been diſtinguiſhed for the uniform tenour of their public life.—He had likewiſe been accuſed for not blaming the Eaſt India company for giving government three ſhips of the line in the courſe of laſt war, and for not condemning miniſtry in accepting the offer of a noble lord (lord Lonſdale) to build a 74; which had not, however, ever conſtituted a part of the royal navy. His anſwer to this aſſertion would be ſhort, but he truſted ſatisfactory, when he declared he had given his moſt unequivocal and decided diſapprobation of both theſe meaſures. Mr. Fox here entered much at large into a defence of his own conduct, and then proceeded to a diſcuſſion of the hiſtorical precedents which had been brought forward on the ſubject. The year 1745 he termed a ſeaſon of unparelleled difficulty; and by no means to be quoted as a precedent for the conduct of government, at the preſent or any other period. The Bill of Rights itſelf, he ſaid, might be perverted to an evil purpoſe, if that alone were ſuppoſed

poſed to contain all the privileges of Engliſhmen. He combated the authorities of lord Coke, lord Hardwicke, &c. adduced by the attorney-general. It has been contended (ſaid he) that the ſtatute of Richard III, on which lord Coke has commented, was only meant to check ſtrained benevolence, and not voluntary donations; but from conſidering the circumſtances of the times, and the cruel wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, it would appear that there could exiſt no benevolences but what were ſtrained, and conſequently, that this ſtatute was meant to explode them altogether; and by the caſe in the time of Edward III, when the merchants of London contributed to his aid by ſubſcription, it was reſolved that all ſuch gifts were improper, becauſe they might be urged as reaſons for compelling the reſt of the king's ſubjects to ſubſcribe, however contrary to their inclination. As to the general expedience of the meaſure propoſed, he ſaid, in the firſt place, it was miſchievous, as it would enable one party in the country to arm the king in time of war, without the conſent of the commons; in the ſecond place it was inconſiſtent with that ſpecies of connexion which ſhould ſubſiſt between the king and his ſubjects, command being the right of the one, and implicit obedience the duty of the other. Should ſome refuſe to comply with the preſent requeſt, by whatever motives they might be actuated, they would be regarded as marked men.

Mr. Windham obſerved, that the hon. gentleman who had made the motion, had brought forward the buſineſs plainly and fairly, and in ſuch a manner as to overſet his own propoſition. His ſtatements preſſed too hard on his own arguments, that if any perſon could have imagined the meaſure was illegal and unconſtitutional before, he would from the ſpeech of the hon. member that night, be perfectly ſatisfied that it was not.

He then entered into a diſcuſſion of the principles on which the preſent meaſure was brought forward, which he concluded to be perfectly legal and conſtitutional.

The gentlemen of the oppoſition (ſaid he) think themſelves the only champions of the conſtitution, and, that ſhe can only be ſafe by throwing herſelf into their arms; if that were ſo, he thought the conſtitution muſt be in a bad way. Theſe gentlemen reſembled two honourable members in the year 1745, who looked upon the dangers of that period as extremely light and trifling. His old friends on the oppoſition ſide of the houſe, if he might believe them, had ſo tender a regard for the conſtitution, as not to permit the winds of heaven to viſit her face too roughly, and at the ſame moment they expoſe her to the pruning knife of every ſavage innovator.

At length, at half paſt two the houſe divided, when the numbers were, for the previous queſtion 204—Againſt 34—Majority 170.

In the houſe of lords, on Thurſday, April 3, the marquis of Lanſdown ſaid, that in a diſcuſſion which took place ſome days ago, when he was abſent, relative to the plan now adopted for raiſing voluntary ſubſcriptions, he underſtood it to have been ſtated, that the letters written, and the plan ſuggeſted by him, in 1782, were ſimilar in point of principle with the meaſures now recommended by his majeſty's miniſters. In his opinion, no two meaſures could be more widely different: that in 1782, was perfectly conſiſtent with the law and conſtitution of this country; whereas the preſent one ſtood contraſted with that, as being illegal and unconſtitutional. It was his intention at firſt to have ſubmitted ſome motion to the houſe, which would have brought the meaſure of 1782 before their lordſhips view: but as he underſtood there was a bill now pending in the other houſe of parliament, in the diſcuſſion of which that ſubject might be properly introduced, he ſhould wait till that bill was brought up.

Lord Grenville ſaid, he was ready to meet any noble lord, to prove, that the meaſure now adopted by his majeſty's miniſters was perfectly conſiſtent with the law and conſtitution of England.

The ſame day, in the houſe of commons, Mr. Dundas preſented the following ſtatement of the revenues of the Eaſt India Company:

Revenues:	£.
Bengal Revenue for the laſt year	5,526,934
Madras Revenue - -	2,476,310
Bombay ditto - - -	242,316
Total	8,245,560
Charges.	
Bengal Charges - -	2,956,068
Madras ditto - -	1,963,665
Bombay ditto - -	681,569
Total	5,601,302

Surplus of Revenues -	2,644,258
Out of which is to be deducted,	
Supplies from Bengal to Bencoolen, St. Helena, &c. -	74,184
The intereſt upon debts at Bengal	642,376
Which leaves a balance of -	1,927,698
To this is to be added the amount received for the ſale of import goods, &c. - -	489,389
Leaving a balance of -	2,417,537

Having laid this ſtatement before the houſe, Mr. Dundas made the two following reſolutions, which were agreed to:

1ſt, 'That it is expedient, that the Eaſt India company ſhould not be obliged to reduce their bonded debt under two millions ſterling.

2dly, 'That the company be enabled, with the conſent of the board of controul, to raiſe the ſum of one million, over and above their preſent bonded debt.

In the houſe of lords, on Tueſday, April 8, on the firſt reading of the volunteer corps bill brought up from the commons, the marquis of Lanſdown roſe, and, after ſome preliminary obſervations, relative to the ſubject to which he had before called the attention of the houſe, moved, that an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, praying he would be graciouſly pleaſed to give directions that there be laid before the houſe a copy of the circular letter ſent by his majeſty's ſecretary of ſtate to different parts of the country in 1782, with the plan ſent therewith, and the anſwers thereto.

Lord Grenville oppoſed the motion. It was true he had maintained, that the preſent meaſure adopted by miniſters was ſimilar to that adopted by the noble marquis in 1782; and he was ready to argue that point with any noble lord, becauſe he was ſure the two meaſures were preciſely ſimilar—not, indeed, in every minute part, but in the principle upon which they were founded. But, at the ſame time, he wiſhed not to have it underſtood, that miniſters had cited the caſe of 1782, as a caſe upon which they meant to juſtify their preſent plan; but when they brought it forward, they expected that all thoſe who had agreed in the propriety of the ſubſcription of 1782, would, upon the ſame principle, concur in the preſent one. This meaſure was founded upon clear, diſtinct, conſtitutional principles, and not upon any one precedent in particular: therefore it could not be neceſſary to lay before the houſe the papers called for.

The marquis of Lanſdown appealed to the houſe, whether, after he had been attacked, it was fair to refuſe him the means of defence. With reſpect to the ſuppoſed ſimilarity between the two meaſures, he would undertake to prove, in the moſt ſatisfactory manner, that they were as diſſimilar as two meaſures could be; the one being ſtrictly conſtitutional, and the other directly the reverſe.

Lord Lauderdale ſaid, he had always underſtood, that it was the unqueſtionable right of any perſon accuſed, when part of the charge againſt him was founded upon any paper, to call for the whole of that paper, in order that he might ſhew, from the whole context, that the meaning which had been put upon the part produced was not that which ſhould fairly be drawn from the whole. If that were a principle of juſtice, it was clear that the noble marquis had a right to demand thoſe papers upon which his defence was to be founded. The miniſters had, in his opinion, adopted a conduct as extraordinary as it was impolitic, becauſe they were eſtabliſhing as a principle, that miniſters might produce the papers of their predeceſſors, or ſo much of them as ſerved the purpoſe of their arguments, and at the ſame time refuſe to produce the remainder. He had always underſtood, that when miniſters came into office, they had a right to uſe the papers of their predeceſſors for their individual information, but had no right to produce thoſe papers publicly, except for the purpoſe of public juſtice. Miniſters ſhould be cautious how they ſet an example to future miniſters to treat them in a ſimilar manner.

Lord Carliſle ſaid, the whole miſtake upon this ſubject aroſe from ſuppoſing that the noble marquis had been attacked, whereas the direct contrary was the fact; for he conceived that nothing could be a greater compliment to a man than to follow his example. So far, therefore, from cenſuring his conduct, the miniſters had given it the ſtrongeſt marks of their approbation, by acting upon the ſame principles. He thought the noble marquis would find ſome difficulty in maintaining and proving his propoſition, that the two meaſures were not in their nature *ſimilar*; and ſtill more difficulty would he find in proving the propriety of the refuſal of Mr. ſecretary Fox to produce the papers in 1782, and then to argue upon the impropriety of ſuch a refuſal by the miniſters in 1794.

Lord Derby contended, that it was obvious the noble marquis had been accuſed,

because his conduct in 1782, had been compared with a measure which he (the marquis of Lansdown) had reprobated as utterly irreconcilable with the constitution of the kingdom.

The marquis of Lansdown observed, that a noble lord (Carlisle) had said, that instead of being accused, he was complimented by ministers. That noble lord had infinitely more knowledge of the world, and much greater abilities to apply that knowledge, than he had; and to that noble lord it might appear, that a charge of inconsistency and change of political opinion was a compliment; but so completely old-fashioned were his opinions, that he was extremely anxious to maintain his character for consistency and uniformity of political sentiment.

Lord Auckland said, he had not yet heard any good reason assigned why those papers should be produced; he was therefore averse to their production. He was not acquainted with the nature of the answers transmitted to the letter of 1782; but as ministers had stated that some danger and inconvenience might arise from their being made public, he thought the house ought to be satisfied with that reason, particularly as the period was not so remote as to preclude the possibility of danger.

Lord Grenville said, he had no objection to produce the letter and plan of 1782.

The marquis of Lansdown moved, that the letter and plan of 1782 should be laid upon the table.

The motion was put and agreed to.

The motion for the production of the answers to that letter was next put; upon which the house divided, and it was negatived by 56 to 8.

[To be continued.]

AFFAIRS *of* FRANCE, *continued from Page* 49: *Including a full Account of the late important Revolution.*

THE first symptoms of an approaching revolution in the government of France, was on Wednesday, June 11, when Bourdon de l'Oise observed, that by a decree of the preceding day, the Convention had entrusted to the Committees of Public Safety and General Welfare, the right of carrying before the Revolutionary Tribunal such as they should deem to have incurred the severity of national justice. He enquired, therefore, whether this right extended to the members of the Convention; and he moved, that the Committees should still preserve the salutary right of apprehending, whenever necessary, the representatives of the people, but that they should not take them before the Revolutionary Tribunal, without a previous decree of accusation framed by the Convention. A decree, accordingly, passed to this effect; by which, for the first time since the execution of Danton and his party, some check was given to the sanguinary views and proceedings of Robespierre, who appeared to influence all the proceedings of the two committees.

The next day, Couthon, in the name of the Committee of Public Safety, made a report on the new organization of the Revolutionary Tribunal. On this occasion Bourdon de l'Oise and La Cointre, demanded an adjournment, which Robespierre opposed. 'I observe,' said the latter, 'that the period when liberty triumphs in the most determined way, is also that when the enemies of the public weal are particularly active to deprive us of the fruits of our labours. We consent to die, but we wish that the country and the Convention may be saved.'—One principal end of this new organization was to expedite the sanguinary proceedings of the tribunal, by dividing it into smaller tribunals, so that a greater number of criminals might be trying at one time. This organization was actually decreed by the Convention; and the triumph of Robespierre was, in this instance, complete, although, as it appeared in the sequel, it was of no long duration.

About this time, while the combined armies in Flanders, Brabant, and on the Rhine, were retreating before the more numerous forces of the French, the Convention were amused, at the same time, with repeated reports of victories obtained, and alarmed with daily accounts of conspiracies in embryo, or actually discovered. Whether there were any truth or not in the accounts of these conspiracies, it is certain, that at this time a serious contest was approaching between two powerful factions. The success of the military operations against the combined powers would, it was thought, have consolidated the credit of the Committee of Public Safety, and have strengthened the authority of its leader. It soon appeared, however, that

the principal leader of the ruling faction was tottering upon his revolutionary throne. While Robespierre was successively plotting the destruction of the partizans of Brissot, Hebert, and Danton, he was seldom seen in public. Certain of triumphing, he remained behind the scenes, and left the ruin of his rivals to be promoted by his subalterns. He never appeared himself, but to decide at once the arrest or death of those whom he had proscribed. Now, he was scarcely ever absent from the club of the Jacobins, whose tribune he often ascended; and he had not sufficient authority to imprison one of those, whom, in in the midst of the Convention, he had stigmatized as villains and conspirators.

Of all the chiefs of the different factions which have successively reigned in the volcano of the French Revolution, Robespierre was the man whose government promised to be the most durable; because he had the character of being the most incorruptible, and of having shewn the least variation in his conduct. The cause of his overthrow will, no doubt, be accounted for in the number of terrible executions which he ordered, and which brought upon him a host of enemies *.

It was on the 25th of July, that this great contest may be said to have commenced. On that day, Barrere having announced that the army of the Sambre and the Meuse were marching to Liege, presented a report in the name of the Committees of Public Safety and General Welfare, in which, 'after stating that liberty would annihilate the authors of the new plot, he entered into a reply to those misled citizens, who expressed a desire that a second 31st of May should take place. In this reply, he drew a comparison between the present prosperous situation of France, and the disastrous state in which the different factions had involved the country. His speech was received with loud applause.

On the 26th of July, Robespierre, in a long speech concerning the revolutionary government, endeavoured to answer the accusations of those who had reproached him with aspiring to be dictator. These reproaches, he said, had become more violent since the strenuous manner in which he had asserted the existence of a Supreme Being, in opposition to the atheistical successors of Hebert and Danton. In the course of a variety of observations relative to the state of the republic, he denied that he had ever proposed to the Committee of Public Safety to arrest thirty members of the Convention.

A debate immediately took place, whether Robespierre's speech should be referred to the Committees, previously to its being printed, in order to prevent any errors from creeping into it, or whether it should be printed immediately, for the use of the members, without any such reference. After a tumultuous discussion, the motion for its being referred to the Committees, (with some other motions not immediately relative to the subject) was evaded by the order of the day; and the Convention decreed the immedinte printing of the speech.

This triumph of Robespierre was but of short duration. The next day St. Just, one of his partizans, appeared in the tribune: 'I am of no faction,' said he;' I hate all factions. Your Committees of Public Safety and General Welfare have ordered me to present a report to you on the apparent corruption of the public opinion—But I will speak only to you, and I will speak only in my own name.'—He was prevented from proceeding by exclamations of indignation against him.

Tallien obtained leave to speak. 'St. Just,' said he, 'has began by informing you that he is of no party—I belong only to the party of truth. Yesterday a member of the government (Robespierre) thought proper to make an insulated report; to-day another member addresses you in his own name, and on his own account. Alas! what citizen can refrain from tears, when he contemplates the miseries of his country!'

'You will shudder,' said Billaud Varennes, 'when you hear that the armed force of Paris is committed to the armed hands of parricides. Henriot, you remember, was denounced by the Revolutionary Tribunal as the accomplice of Hebert. From the punishment which he deserved he was rescued by the power of one man.—Who is that man? you will ask—Robespierre is the man.—Lavalette, one of the chiefs of the armed force, and the only noble who has been retained in a military capacity, sharpened the poniards that were to massacre the deputies.—Who was his protector?—Robespierre was his protector.'

* These executions were literally *diurnal*; and forty or fifty unhappy victims, *at one time*, were no uncommon sight. Among the more celebrated, who perished in this way, were the famous baron Trenck, and M. Linguet.

Billaud

Billaud Varennes brought ſeveral other charges againſt Robeſpierre; among others, that he occaſioned ſeveral members of the Revolutionary Committee of the Section of Indiviſibility, whoſe patriotiſm was never ſuſpected, to be thrown into priſon. He accuſed him of having ſeceded from the Committee of Public Safety during the ſpace of four decades, and at the time when the decree relative to the Revolutionary Tribunal was in agitation; a decree which originated in him, which was ſo ill received, and whoſe object was to expel from the Convention all *impure men*, that is to ſay, all thoſe who were diſagreeable to him. He alſo accuſed Robeſpierre of having ſaved from the ſcaffold a ſecretary who had been convicted of ſtealing 40,000 livres, and of being ſurrounded by men of bad characters, particularly Daubigny. After an energetic ſpeech againſt Robeſpierre, he concluded by denouncing him as a tyrant, and an enemy to his country. The loudeſt applauſes reſounded from every part of the hall.

Robeſpierre attempted to ſpeak; but the members exclaimed, *A bas le Tyran*—Down with the tyrant.

Here Tallien roſe: 'In the houſe of that guilty individual,' ſaid he, 'who now ſtands humbled with the conſciouſneſs of detected guilt, were formed thoſe liſts of proſcription which have ſtained with ſo much blood the altars of riſing liberty. Imitating the example of the deteſtable Sylla, his proſcriptions were intended only to pave the way for his own power and the eſtabliſhment of a perpetual dictatorſhip. Happily, however, his deſigns have been diſcovered before he had time to execute them, or to add to that ſtream of blood which has already deluged France. His long ſucceſs in villany made him, at laſt, lay aſide his wonted caution. He had advanced with ſuch rapidity in the career of lawleſs ambition, that he already conceived himſelf arrived at the accompliſhment of his wiſhes; and that, like Ceſar, the name of King was only wanting for the full eſtabliſhment of his power. Was it to ſubject ourſelves to ſo degrading, and ſo abject a tyranny, that we brought to the ſcaffold the laſt of the Capets, and laviſhed ſo much blood of French citizens? Was it in order to acknowledge ſo petty a deſpot, that we declared eternal war againſt Kings, and ſwore to eſtabliſh liberty at the price of life?—No, the ſpirit of freedom has not ſunk ſo low: the ſenſe of that duty which virtuous men owe to their country is not yet extinguiſhed. I invoke the ſhade of the virtuous Brutus,' he continued, fixing his eye on the buſt of that patriot: 'like him, I have a poniard to rid my country of the tyrant, if the Convention do not deliver him up to the ſword of juſtice. The French people, ever juſt, are attached neither to Robeſpierre nor to any other individual. Liberty is alone the object of their affections, and whoever forms any deſigns againſt it, becomes that moment their enemy. That liberty they will ever purſue amid the intrigues of domeſtic traitors, and the oppoſition of foreign deſpots. The republic is to be eſtabliſhed not only by the victories of our armies, but by the vigilance of our councils, and the juſtice of our puniſhments. After the enumeration of facts which you have heard from the laſt ſpeaker, is it neceſſary for me to remind you of the proceedings of that ſitting of the Jacobins, where Dumas, preſident of the Revolutionary Tribunal, the creature and confederate of Robeſpierre, had the audacity to inſult the repreſentatives of the people? Need I recal to you that expreſſion addreſſed to the journaliſts in one of the laſt ſittings of the Jacobins? '*I prohibit you from inſerting my ſpeeches in your papers, till you have previouſly communicated them to me.*' Here already we find the tone of the dictator—the people ſhall know nothing except through my organ, and in the manner in which I ſhall be pleaſed to communicate it to them. Well, indeed, might *he* court the aid of ſilence and deception, whoſe deſigns were too infamous to be revealed, and whoſe conduct required to be gloſſed over with all the artifice of hypocriſy. But the French people were not to be ſo enſlaved, after having ſhaken off the tyranny of force. The guilt of the traitors now ſtands revealed, and it now remains only to think of their puniſhment. For this purpoſe I demand that we declare the ſitting permanent.

The propoſition was immediately decreed.

Billaud Varennes denounced as accomplices of that conſpiracy which was on the point of being carried into effect, and the object of which was to annihilate the National Convention, Boulanger, who ſaid to Hebert, while he was employed in making out his liſt of proſcriptions—*Write, and we will ſtrike*;—Dufreſne, who had been a party to the treachery of Dumourier;—Dumas, who attempted to provoke the Jacobin club to aſſaſſinate the repreſentatives of the people,—and Lavalette, an ex-noble, and one of the commanders of the armed force

force of Paris. He concluded by moving, that theſe perſons ſhould be arreſted.—It was decreed.

Delmas moved, that the adiutant-generals and the aid-de-camp of Henriot ſhould be put in a ſtate of arreſt; which was decreed; and Daubigny and Sigeos were alſo ordered to be arreſted.

Barrere preſented a report and proclamation to be addreſſed to the people. They were received with loud applauſes; and the Convention adopting this proclamation, ordered it to be publiſhed, and ſent to every part of the republic. They alſo decreed, that in the armed force of Paris all rank ſuperior to that of the chief of a legion ſhould be ſuppreſſed. The armed force was ordered to be newly organized, and to be regenerated; and it was decreed, that it ſhould be commanded monthly by the chiefs of the legion by turns.

Vadier entered into a very intereſting detail of the tyranny that had been practiſed by Robeſpierre, and upon that ſyſtem of *eſpionage* (ſpies and informers) which had been applied to each of the national deputies.

After having heard ſpeeches from Tallien, Billaud Varennes, and ſeveral other members, the Convention unanimouſly decreed, after deliberating on each motion, "that Robeſpierre the elder, Robeſpierre the younger, St. Juſt, Couthon, and Lebas, ſhould be put in a ſtate of arreſt, and their papers ſealed up.—Nicolas, a member of the Revolutionary Jury, was alſo ordered to be arreſted. The decree was immediately put in execution, and the arreſted members were carried by the proper officers through the bar of the Convention.

Collot D'Herbois then aſcended the tribune. Loud and repeated plaudits prevented his being heard for ſome time. When the plaudits had ceaſed, he made a long ſpeech, in which he congratulated the Convention on the deſtruction of that ſyſtem of terror which tended to weaken and check the exertions of the patriots.

In the mean time, the members arreſted, relying on the ſtrength of their intereſt in the Commune [Municipality or Corporation] of Paris, were determined to reſiſt the decree. They were firſt ſent to the Luxemburgh, but the adminiſtrator of the police there would not receive them as priſoners. They were then taken to the Town-houſe, where they were received, as friends, with open arms. Henriot, who was alſo arreſted, found means to eſcape, and rode about the ſtreets at the head of ſome horſe, accompanied by his adjutants, deſiring the people to arm, as Robeſpierre was arreſted, and liberty trod under foot. He was believed by ſome, particularly the cannoneers, and between nine and ten found himſelf at the head of about 4000 men, on the Place du Carouſel. The Commune rang the alarm-bell, in the front of the Town-houſe, and the Place de Grieve, was filled with armed men, and a number of pieces of cannon. Robeſpierre, St. Juſt, and Couthon, with the Commune, formed themſelves into a National Convention, declared the other repreſentatives of the people traitors to the country, and outlawed them; ſent circular letters to all the diſtricts, appointed a Revolutionary Tribunal to condemn all thoſe to death who ſhould oppoſe them, of which Dumas was made preſident. Sijas, Vivier, and others, ſounded the alarm bell at the Jacobin club, which alſo declared in favour of Robeſpierre: in a word, all Paris was in motion, and a civil war was on the point of breaking out.

The National Convention, on their part, were not inactive: Henriot, Robeſpierre, Couthon, St. Juſt, and all the members of the Commune, were outlawed; and a proclamation was publiſhed and read in all the diſtricts of Paris, repreſenting the danger of the country. This had its effect, and the people declared for the Convention. Part of the troops quitted Henriot, and 12 deputies were appointed by the Convention to direct the military operations. Between two and three in the morning, Bourdon de l'Oiſe appeared upon the Place de Grieve, and read the decrees of the Convention to the people. He then flew, with a ſabre between his teeth, and a piſtol in each hand, to the hall of the Commune, at the head of ſome reſolute men. This bold proceeding confuſed the inſurgents: Robeſpierre was wounded with a piſtol on the chin; his brother jumped out of a window, and broke his leg and arm; Couthon ſtabbed himſelf twice; and one Coſſintal, a member of the Commune, enraged that Henriot (who had declared, upon forfeiture of his head, that all Paris was in their favour) had deceived them, abſolutely threw Henriot out of window, who, thus bruiſed and wounded, found means to hide himſelf in a ſewer, whence he was afterward dragged all over blood and mud. The Town-houſe was ſo ſurrounded, that none of the inſurgents could eſcape, and they were all ſent to the Committee of Public Safety. Le Gendre did the ſame at the Jacobin club as Bourdon

de

de l'Oiſe had done at the Town-houſe: he was going to ſhoot the preſident, but fearful leſt he might miſs his aim, or hit ſome one elſe, he only arreſted him, ſhut up the club, and took the keys to the Convention. At break of day the tumult was over.

On the following day, between ſix and ſeven in the evening, Robeſpierre and nine of his adherents, with twelve members of the Commune, received their puniſhment amid an innumerable crowd of people of all ſexes, crying, 'long live the republic! down with the tyrant! down with the Cromwell!' Couthon was guillotined firſt, then the younger Robeſpierre, and next Henriot. Robeſpierre himſelf was the laſt but one. The applauſes and acclamations were doubled when he aſcended the ſcaffold, where he ſtood two minutes, while the executioner took off the cloth which covered his wounded face: he did not ſay a word. Not one of the culprits ſhewed the leaſt firmneſs or courage, but all died like cowards.

On the next day (Tueſday, July 30,) 71 members of the Municipality were condemned and executed.

'Every moment,' ſays one of the Paris papers,' brings to light ſome new atrocity committed by Robeſpierre, who had placed his creatures in all departments, and particularly in the Revolutionary Tribunal. This has given riſe to the arreſt of the judges and juries of that tribunal, which will be re-organized.

The Convention have already releaſed ſeveral patriots put under arreſt by the tyrant. The plan ſeems to have been, to get rid of all, whoſe abilities ſtood the leaſt in his way, and then to form a triumvirate with the blood-thirſty Couthon and the ambitious St. Juſt.

The Convention have decreed, that henceforward one fourth of the members of all the committees, without diſtinction, ſhall be renewed monthly, and on the 30th of July, they proceeded, by public vote, to complete the committee of Public Welfare: the new members are, Eſſlachereau the elder, Breard, la Loi, Thuriot, Treillard, and Tallien; the old ones are, Carnot, Barrere, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud Varennes, Prieur de la Cote d'Or, and Robert Lindet.

[To be continued.]

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTES.

ON the 9th of Auguſt, advices were received at the admiralty, from vice-admiral ſir John Jervis, dated Point-à-Petre, Guadaloupe, June 13, ſtating that a French ſquadron * had appeared off that place, on the 3d, with a body of troops, which had landed and were in poſſeſſion of the Fort Fleur d'Epée; and that he was taking meaſures to give the moſt effectual aſſiſtance to general ſir Charles Grey, to enable him to regain that fort, and the town of Grand Terre, which had been taken with it.

Advices were alſo received on the 12th inſtant, at the Horſe Guards, Whitehall, from ſir Charles Grey, the laſt dated Point-à-Petre, June 14, ſtating, that the enemy having croſſed the mouth of the harbour from the town of Point-à-Petre, and encamped at the poſt of St. Jean, on the oppoſite point, he had ordered them to be attacked by a detachment under brigadier-general Dundas, who totally routed the enemy, and took their camp, colours, baggage, &c. and one piece of cannon. He added, that he was preparing to follow up this advantage. The reſult, however, was not ſo favourable as the general expected, as appears by the following advices from the London Gazette of Tueſday, Auguſt 19.

Horſe-Guards, Whitehall, Auguſt 19. A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, was yeſterday received from general ſir Charles Grey, K. B. by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Berville Camp, oppoſite Point-à-Petre, Guadaloupe, July 8, 1794.

Sir,

In my diſpatch of the 13th ult. I had the honour to acquaint you of my intention to land on the ſide of Fort Fleur d'Epée, and try to regain Grand Terre, ſo ſoon as what force could be drawn from the other iſlands ſhould be collected; accordingly, having been joined by moſt part of it, * I ordered brigadier-general Symes to make a landing, with the grenadiers under the command of lieutenant-colonel Fiſher, and the light-infantry under the command of lieutenant-colonel Gomm; which was effected, without loſs

* Conſiſting of two frigates, one corvette, two large ſhips armed *en flute*, and two other ſhips, whoſe force could not be aſcertained. They landed 1500 troops.

of

or oppoſition, early in the morning of the 19th ult. at Ance Canot, under cover of two frigates, the Solebay, captain Kelly, and the Winchelſea, captain lord Garlies, the enemy retiring; and the ſame troops moved on to Gozier, and took poſſeſſion of it in the afternoon, which the enemy abandoned, burning ſome houſes.

As the enemy had poſſeſſion of a ſituation that commanded the road to Fort Fleur d'Epée, I detached three companies of grenadiers and three companies of light-infantry, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Fiſher, who marched, at twelve o'clock in the night between the 25th and 26th ult. by a circuitous and moſt difficult path, coming on the back of the enemy at ſix o'clock the next morning, who fled. One of their ſentries fell into his hands, and he took poſſeſſion of that and two other commanding heights. Having ſent two amuzettes to that detachment the ſame day, the enemy made an attack upon the eſcort when mounting the hill on which lieutenant-colonel Fiſher's detachment was poſted, who attacked and repulſed them.

The enemy continuing in poſſeſſion of a chain of high and woody grounds, with difficult paſſes between our poſt and Morne Maſcot, the remainder of the grenadiers and light-infantry, with captain Robertſon's battalion of ſeamen, were puſhed forward to the ſame poſt, and on the 27th ult. the enemy were attacked on all ſides by brigadier-general Symes, with the grenadiers and light-infantry, completely routed, driven down to Morne Maſcot, where they again made reſiſtance, and being charged with bayonets they fled into Fort Fleur d'Epée. Having collected conſiderable force from the town of Point-à-Petre and the neighbourhood, armed Blacks, Mulattoes, and all colours, they advanced in great numbers the ſame afternoon, under cover of their guns, from Fort Fleur d'Epée, which ſo completely raked the top of the hill, that the grenadiers could hardly appear on it, until the enemy were alſo there, and attacked that part of Morne Maſcot where lieutenant-colonel Fiſher was poſted with the grenadiers, when an obſtinate engagement took place, which laſted for ſome time, the front being within a few yards of each other, and the enemy's number being very ſuperior; but the grenadiers forced them down the hill again with great ſlaughter.

The 29th following, the enemy having collected a ſtill greater force, clothing mulattoes and blacks in the national uniform, to the amount of 1500 men, again attacked the ſame poſt; and at this time they had a field-piece on the right, which enfiladed the grenadiers, in addition to their guns in front, which fired round and grape ſhot from the fort. Having obſerved the enemy making a movement toward the rear of the grenadiers, to take poſſeſſion of a houſe and ſtrong ground, which the ſecond battalion of light-infantry, under major Roſs, was then ordered to occupy; but having ſome diſtance to go, four companies of grenadiers were detached under major Irving from the poſt on Maſcot, before the engagement commenced, who ſeized the poſt in the rear, leſt the enemy might get there before our light-infantry, which had, however, reduced our force on Maſcot at the time of its being attacked: but major Roſs, with the ſecond light-infantry, reaching the poſt in the rear ſoon after major Irving, the latter inſtantly returned to Maſcot with the four companies of grenadiers; and having re-joined when the engagement had laſted for ſome time, the enemy were charged with bayonets, and driven from the height with ſtill greater ſlaughter than on their former attack. During the firſt day's engagement, lieutenant-colonel Fiſher was ſtruck with grape-ſhot, occaſioning contuſions only, and on the laſt his horſe was killed under him. During this time, major Roſs, with the ſecond light-infantry, was alſo engaged with the enemy, and repulſed them with loſs on their ſide.

The rainy ſeaſon being already ſet in, and this being the laſt month for acting before the hurricane ſeaſon, at the ſame time that the troops were expoſed alternately to heavy rains and a vertical ſun, together with the circumſtances of the great ſlaughter recently ſuffered by the enemy in the two attacks they made on Morne Maſcot, determined me to make an effort for finiſhing the campaign at once; and I concerted meaſures accordingly, ordering brigadier-general Symes to march in the evening of the 1ſt inſtant, from Morne Maſcot, with the firſt battalion of grenadiers, the firſt and ſecond battalions of light-infantry, and the firſt battalion of ſeamen, commanded by capt. Robertſon, who attacked the town of Point-à-Petre before day of the 2d inſtant, but being miſled by our guides, the troops entered the town at the part where they were moſt expoſed to the enemy's cannon and ſmall arms, and where it was not

poſſible

poſſible to ſcale the walls of the fort; in conſequence of which they ſuffered conſiderably from round and grape ſhot, together with ſmall arms fired from the houſes, &c. and a retreat became unavoidable; the more ſo, as the troops are entirely worn out by fatigue and the climate, ſo as to be quite exhauſted, and totally incapable of further exertion at preſent.

It gives me great concern to add, that brigadier-general Symes was wounded; lieutenant-colonel Gomm (an excellent officer) and ſome other meritorious officers were killed on this attack; as was alſo captain Robertſon, of the navy, a valuable officer, and a great loſs to the ſervice. Incloſed is brigadier general Symes' report, accounting for the failure of that enterpriſe. I had every thing in readineſs at the poſt of Morne Maſcot for an attack upon Fort Fleur d'Epée, by ſtorm, with the ſecond battalion of grenadiers, 65th regiment, ſix companies of Grande Terre, and the ſecond battalion of ſeamen, commanded by captain Sawyer; waiting, as concerted, until I ſhould hear whether brigadier-general Symes, with his diviſion, ſucceeded, or had taken poſt near the town of Point-à-Petre; but his failure obliged me to relinquish the meditated attack upon Fort Fleur d'Epée, by laying me under the neceſſity of detaching the ſecond battalion of grenadiers, to cover the retreat of brigadier-general Symes' diviſion.

The ſeaſon for action in the field being paſt, and the troops debilitated by the fatigue of a long campaign and the climate, ſo as to become unable for further conteſt, without ſhelter from the ſcorching heat of a vertical ſun, or the heavy rains now ſo frequent, there remained no choice but to retreat; and I brought the troops, with every thing we had at Morne Maſcot, back to Gozier, on the night of the ſecond inſtant, detaching the ſecond battalion of light-infantry and loyaliſts, by Petit Bourge, to Berville, &c. on the 3d following, to ſecure Baſſe Terre; and embarking the remainder of the troops during the enſuing night.

I have now occupied the ground with my whole force between St. John's Point and Bay Mahault, having erected batteries with twenty-four pounders, and mortar batteries, at Point Saron and Point St. John, oppoſite to the town of Point-à-Petre and the ſhipping, both of which I ſhall endeavour to deſtroy; and which ſituation gives perfect ſecurity to Baſſe Terre.

As the harbour is alſo perfectly blocked up by the admiral, the enemy muſt ſuffer every diſtreſs.

I tranſmit a return of our killed and wounded.

I have appointed colonel Colin Graham, of the 21ſt regiment, brigadier-general, and to command the troops in Baſſe Terre, Guadaloupe; of which I hope his majeſty will approve.

When the intelligence was received that Grand Terre had been retaken by the French, lieutenant-colonels Coote and Craddock were both at St. Chriſtopher's, ſo far on their way to England, for the recovery of their health, having had my leave of abſence after the cloſe of laſt campaign; and although they were moſt dangerouſly ill of a fever, for which they were then only recovering, they rejoined me, and have been very eſſentially uſeful and ſerviceable on this occaſion, when officers were ſo much wanted, and eſpecially officers of their merit and ability.

Lieutenant-colonel Coote will have the honour to deliver this diſpatch; an officer of infinite merit, who returns home for the re-eſtabliſhment of his health; and he is well qualified to give you any further information that may be required. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES GREY.

P. S. I cannot ſufficiently acknowledge the great aſſiſtance I have received from every officer and ſeaman in the navy. The unanimity which has prevailed between them and the army upon this, as upon every other occaſion during the campaign, could not be exceeded; nor can I omit once more to expreſs my warmeſt approbation of the gallant zeal and good conduct of every officer and ſoldier of this brave army, who have, through a campaign in the worſt of climates, endured hardſhips unparalleled.

CHARLES GREY.

[Then follows a return of killed, wounded and miſſing, in the army commanded by his excellency general ſir Charles Grey, K. B. &c. from June 10, to July 3, amounting in the whole to one lieutenant-colonel, four captains, ſeven lieutenants, ſeven ſerjeants, two drummers, 91 rank and file, killed; one major, three captains, ſeven lieutenants, thirteen ſerjeants, eight drummers, 298 rank and file, wounded; one ſerjeant, three drummers, 52 rank and file, miſſing.]

Names of the officers killed.—Lieutenant-colonel Gomm, 55th regiment; captain Armſtrong, 8th ditto; captain

Combe, 15th ditto; captain Groves, 35th ditto; captain Morrison, 58th ditto; lieutenant Booth, 8th ditto; lieutenant Lyster, 12th ditto; lieutenant Crocker, 15th ditto; lieutenant Morrison, 40th ditto; lieutenant Toosey, 65th ditto.

Names of officers wounded.—Major Ross, 31st regiment; captain Tweedle, 12th ditto: captain Foster, 60th ditto; captain Slater, 60th ditto; lieutenant Ekins, 6th ditto; lieutenant Auchmuty, 17th ditto; lieutenant Price, 21st ditto; lieutenant Knolles, 21st ditto; lieutenant Culpepper, 22d ditto; lieutenant Hennis, 58th ditto; lieutenant Conway, 60th ditto; lieutenant Cudmore, 64th ditto; lieutenant Mercer, (marines.)

Brigadier-general Symes wounded, not included in the above return.

(Signed)

FRA. DUNDAS, Adjutant-general.

Grosier, July 2.

Sir,

In obedience to your commands, I marched at eight o'clock yesterday evening, from the heights of Matcot, with the first battalion of light-infantry, commanded by lieutenant-colonel Gomm, the second commanded by major Ross, the battalion of grenadiers, commanded by lieutenant-colonel Fisher, and the first battalion of seamen, commanded by captain Robertson of the Veteran, to attack the enemy at Point-à-Petre; and if we could approach it undiscovered to possess ourselves of the Morne de Gouvernement, which commands the town, and which they had taken much pains to strengthen; or if that was not found practicable, to destroy the provisions which had been landed from the ships and deposited there.

The troops marched with the utmost silence through deep ravines, in hopes of reaching the enemy undiscovered; but our guides, whether from ignorance or the darkness of the night, led us in front to those posts of the enemy, which it had been proposed to pass by, and which they assured was practicable: to effect our purpose by surprise became therefore impossible.

At four o'clock in the morning we approached the out-posts of the enemy, which were attacked and driven in by major Ross and the second battalion of light-infantry, with the gallantry and good conduct, which in the course of the campaign, has so often distinguished that officer and corps, which entered the town under a heavy fire from Morne de Gouvernement, and cleared the streets with their bayonets.

The Morne de Gouvernement was to have been attacked by this battalion; but the noise of our approach had permitted them so strongly to reinforce it, joined with the extreme difficulty of access, which admits only two to approach in front, rendered the success of attacking it highly impossible.

To destroy the stores, in which the provisions were lodged, we were then to direct our efforts, which I have no doubt would have been attended with the most complete success, the town being at this time in our possession, and lieutenant colonel Gomm, captain Robertson, of the Veteran, and captain Burnet, assistant quarter-master-general, being charged with the execution of it; when, by a fatality as unforeseen as impossible to guard against, we were prevented from completing what carried so fair an appearance of success.

Our troops, to whom you have so strictly enjoined in night attacks, never to fire, who have uniformly succeeded so often by a strict observance to that rule, and who, till this moment, had not in the course of the night fired a shot, most unfortunately began to load and fire upon each other, nor could all the efforts of their officers put a stop to it.

I was at this time disabled by a severe wound in the right arm, and much bruised by my horse, killed at the same time, and falling upon me. Finding it impossible, under these circumstances, to complete the destruction of the enemy's stores, which we had begun to effect, the troops were ordered to leave the town, and form on the heights at the post of Caille; from whence in approaching we had driven the enemy, and taken two pieces of cannon, at this post, while the troops advanced into the town, a reserve of four companies of grenadiers with eighty seamen had been placed.

As the enemy made every effort to harass us in our return, it became necessary to occupy with care the ground by which it could be most effectually prevented: in this disposition of the troops, I received the most essential and judicious assistance from lieutenant-colonel Fisher and major Ross, who, though wounded, continued with the troops, and rendered the most essential services. The zeal and gallantry shown by all the officers who composed the corps could not have been exceeded.

It is with extreme concern I inform you

that

that our loſs has been conſiderable; and with infinite regret I find that lieutenant-colonel Gomm, and captain Robertſon of the Veteran, both eminently diſtinguiſhed for their gallantry and good conduct, are unfortunately of that number. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) RICHARD SYMES, Brigadier-general.

Admiralty-Office, Aug. 19, 1794.

Extract of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Sir John Jervis, K. B. to Mr. Stephens, dated off Point-à-Petre, Guadaloupe, July 6, 1794.

Since my letter of the 13th ultimo, by the Daſhwood packet, every effort has been made to collect a body of troops from the different iſlands, to enable the general to make a deſcent on Grande Terre. The Veteran arrived on the 17th of June, with two flank companies from St. Vincent's, and four from St. Lucia, and two battalions of ſeamen, under the command of captain Lewis Robertſon of the Veteran, and captain Charles Sawyer of the Vanguard, were attached to the army. Theſe two ſhips, with the Solebay and Winchelſea, were ordered up to l'Ance à Canot, between this road and St. Anne's, under the command of rear-admiral Thompſon, that bay being judged a more ſafe place to debark at, both on account of the ſurf and the face of the country which ſurrounds it, than the bay of Groſier, and the event juſtified the meaſure; for, by the able conduct of the rear-admiral, the captains and officers under his command, the whole corps was landed early on the morning of the 19th, without the loſs of a man, and took poſt at Groſier the ſame evening, where the Solebay, Winchelſea, and Aſſurance were placed to furniſh water and other ſupplies to the camp. The Redbridge returned from St. Chriſtopher's, with the two companies of the 22d, and on the 26th, having received intelligence that a French frigate with three tranſports, had been ſeen off François in Grande Terre, I detached the Solebay and Winchelſea in queſt of them; and, if the intelligence ſhould prove unfounded, to cruize off Port Louis, and endeavour to intercept a partizan of the name of Paſchall, who I had reaſon to believe, was fitting out veſſels at St Bartholomew, to bring over a number of deſperate Brigands, who had fled from this iſland on our taking poſſeſſion of it. On the ſame day, a ſchooner I had ſent up to Martinique arrived with two companies of grenadiers from Marin Bay, and was followed the next day, by a third company in a ſmall ſloop. From the day of debarkation the boats of the ſquadron were conſtantly employed in landing artillery and ſtores, and ſupplying the troops with proviſions and water during the day, and rowing guard at night. Three more gun-boats had arrived from Martinique, and were inceſſantly employed in battering the forts at Point-à-Petre, and the fort of La Fleur d'Epée. The unſucceſsful attempt on the town, on the 2d inſtant, will be deſcribed by the general. I have only to obſerve, that every poſſible exertion was made by the army and navy, that the debilitated ſtate of the officers and men would admit of. It is but juſtice to them to declare, that they were quite exhauſted by the unparalleled ſervices of fatigue and fire they had gone through, for ſuch a length of time, in the worſt climate. Upon the 3d, the general, having communicated to me the propriety of withdrawing the artillery, ſtores and troops from Grande Terre, and reenforcing the poſts in Baſſe Terre, diſpoſitions were immediately made, and, on the night of the 5th, the embarkation was completed without the loſs of a man, under the direction of rear-admiral Thompſon. The fate of captain Lewis Robertſon, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf highly, fills my mind with the deepeſt regret: he had long been a child of misfortune, although he poſſeſſed talents to merit every ſucceſs and proſperity; and as I am informed, he has left a widow and infant family unprovided for, I beg leave to recommend them to the protection and good offices of their lordſhips to obtain a ſuitable proviſion, which will be a great encouragement to officers in ſimilar circumſtances to emulate ſo great an example.

Incloſed is an account of the killed and wounded in the naval battalion, ſince their landing on Grande Terre.

Total killed, wounded, and miſſing, Seven killed, 29 wounded, 16 miſſing.

Names of Officers killed and wounded.

Lieutenant Iſaac Wooley, of the Boyne, wounded.

Captain Lewis Robertſon, of the Veteran, killed.

Firſt lieutenant of marines, John Mercer of the Aſſurance, wounded.

J. JERVIS.

Admiralty-office, August 16.

Extract of a Letter from Capt. Montgomery, of his Majesty's Ship Inconstant, to Mr. Stephens, dated in Smyrna Bay June 30, 1794.

I BEG leave to acquaint you, for the information of my lords commissioners of the admiralty, that I sailed from Naples Bay the 1st inst. in company with his majesty's ships named in the margin, [Romney, Leda, and Tartar], having under convoy one English merchantman and seven Dutch, and arrived with them in safety at this place the 22d.

Being off the island of Argentierra on the 16th inst. I received information that the French commodore had been seen, the evening before, between the islands of Tino and Miconi, convoying three merchantmen. I immediately gave directions to the hon. capt. Paget to remain with the convoy, and made sail with his majesty's ships Leda and Tartar, in the hopes of coming up with them before they could reach the island of Scio. Being in sight of the said island at day-light next morning, and there being no appearance of the enemy, I then hauled our wind to rejoin the convoy; and in the afternoon was informed, by the master of the Mercury Smyrna ship, of what capt. Paget had discovered. I then left the convoy under the care of capt. Freemantle, of the Tartar, and, with the Leda, made all sail for Miconi Bay, where we did not arrive till early the next morning, and there found capt. Paget in possession of La Sybille and the three merchantmen, as stated in his letter to me, a copy of which I enclose for their lordship's information.

Too much praise cannot be given to capt. Paget, for the very judicious and able manner with which he conducted himself throughout the business, and the great care he took in placing his ship in such a manner as not to injure the inhabitants; and the humanity he showed the prisoners, and to those who were wounded and had got on shore after she struck, does him the highest honour.

The very high discipline and good order of his ship manifested itself on every occasion by the alertness with which every point of duty was carried on, though she was much weakened by being, before the action 74 working men short of her complement.

And it is with the greatest satisfaction I convey to their lordships the encomiums Captain Paget bestows on lieutenant Brisbane, and the rest of his officers; which, I am persuaded, they highly merit.

I beg leave to point out that the island of Miconi is perfectly defenceless; there being neither a fort, flag, or even a Turkish inhabitant on it.

The Romney and Tartar, with La Sybille, arrived here this day; the latter is pierced for 48 guns, and mounts 26 18-pounders on her main deck, making use of a shifting gun for the spare afterport: she carried 12 9-pounders, and two 42-pounder carronades on the quarter deck, and four 9-pounders on the fore-castle; was built at Toulon, has been launched two years and a half, and measures

Her gun-deck, in length	157 feet.
Extreme breadth, from out to out	41
Quarter-deck, in length	82

Copy of a Letter from the Hon. Capt. Paget, of his Majesty's Ship Romney, to Capt. Montgomery, of the Inconstant, dated in Miconi Bay, June 18, 1794.

I Beg leave to acquaint you, that yesterday morning, on my passage between the islands of Tino and Miconi, (in his majesty's ship Romney, under my command, and the convoy I had the honour of receiving charge of from you the preceding day) I discovered a frigate, under National colours and a broad pendant, at anchor in shore, with three merchantmen. Judging the convoy to be in perfect safety, as you was in sight from the mast head, I made the signal for them to make the best of their way toward you, hauled my wind, and came to an anchor in Miconi Road, within a little more than a cable's length from the French commodore. I immediately sent to him, to desire he would strike his colours, and surrender to his Britannic majesty, or that I should fire into him: he sent me for answer, that he was well acquainted with the force of my ship; that he was well prepared for me both with men and ammunition, and that he had made oath never to strike his colours.

By this time he had placed his ship between me and the town of Miconi, which obliged me to carry out another anchor, and warp the ship further ahead, in order that my guns might point clear of the town. At one P. M. I got abreast of him; and, having secured the ship with springs on the cables, I gave him a broadside, which he instantly returned. The action lasted, without a moment's intermission, for one hour and ten minutes, when I had the satisfaction of seeing the national

national colours hauled down, and of taking poſſeſſion of her and the merchantmen. She proved to be La Sybille, of 46 guns and 430 men, commanded by commodore Rondeau. I have ſent on board, to take command of her, Mr. Briſbane, firſt lieutenant of the Romney, an officer of moſt diſtinguiſhed merit, whom I beg leave to recommend in the ſtrongeſt manner, and whoſe very cool, gallant behaviour and prompt obedience to my orders during the action, as well as lieutenants Field and O'Bryen, Mr. Patterſon, the maſter, and all the other officers, with the ſhip's company, I cannot ſufficiently commend.

I am ſorry to conclude with informing you, that I had eight ſeamen killed in the action, and 30 wounded, two of whom are ſince dead.

La Sybille had 55 killed, including the ſecond lieutenant and captain of marines, and 103 wounded, nine of which are ſince dead.

ERUPTION OF MOUNT VESUVIUS.

Naples, June 17.

ON the 13th ultimo, at ten o'clock at night, all Naples was ſenſible of the ſhock of an earthquake, with an horizontal motion, which laſted about thirty ſeconds. On Sunday laſt the 15th, about the ſame hour, the earthquake was repeated, which was followed by a violent eruption of Mount Veſuvius. The mountain opened in two places, toward the centre of its line, when columns of black ſmoke, mixed with liquid inflamed matter iſſued from each mouth, and in a line toward the ſea. The exploſions of all theſe mouths, louder than thunder, mixed with ſharp reports, as from the heavieſt pieces of artillery, accompanied by a hollow ſubterraneous rumour, like that of the ſea in a ſtorm, cauſed all the houſes to ſhake to their very foundations. The lavas guſhing from theſe mouths, after having run four miles in a few hours, deſtroyed the greateſt part of the town of Torre del Greco, about a mile from Portici, and made a conſiderable progreſs into the ſea, where it formed a promontory about ten feet above its ſurface, and near a quarter of a mile broad, having heated the water to ſuch a degree that a hand could not be borne in it at the diſtance of one hundred yards from the lava.

It cannot yet be aſcertained how many lives have been loſt in that city. Many families are miſſing, but whether they have eſcaped, or are buried under the ruins of their houſes, is not known. Naples is covered with aſhes, and every object is obſcured as in a thick fog; but Veſuvius, though not viſible, continues very turbulent, and more miſchief may be expected, although the lavas are all ſtopped at this moment. The head of St. Januarius was carried in proceſſion yeſterday, and oppoſed to the mountain by the cardinal archbiſhop of Naples, attended by many thouſands of the inhabitants of this city.

Naples, June 24. Mount Veſuvius is ſtill covered with a thick cloud of aſhes; all noiſe has ceaſed, and the running of the lava is ſtopped. The former crater has fallen in, and the cone of the volcano has lowered 400 or 500 feet, the preſent crater being enlarged, and nearly upon a level with the top of the mountain of Somma. The aſhes that were carried up, with a column of water and ſmoke to the perpendicular height of four miles, have fallen and done infinite miſchief to the town, villages, and country at the foot of that mountain, throwing down ſome houſes, and beating in the roofs of many. Several families from Torre del Greco are ſtill miſſing, but it is believed that very few lives have been loſt. The lava that run over the greateſt part of that town in its way to the ſea, where it has raiſed a promontory, is in ſome places ſeventy feet high, and its breadth about a quarter of a mile. The whole of its courſe may be about four miles, which it performed in leſs than four hours.

Naples, July 1. The miſchief done by the lava and aſhes, during the late eruption of Mount Veſuvius, is very conſiderable. The former has covered and totally deſtroyed above 5000 acres of rich vineyards and cultivated land, and driven 17,000 inhabitants out of the town of Torre del Greco, moſt of the houſes there being either buried under the lava, or ſo injured by it as to be rendered uninhabitable. The temporary damage done to the vineyards on the Somma ſide of the volcano, and for many miles round it, by the prodigious fall of aſhes (in ſome places not leſs than four feet deep) is immenſe. It appears that not more than fifteen lives have been loſt at Torre del Greco.

Naples,

Naples, July 8. The late eruption of Mount Veſuvius ſeems to have occaſioned a ſenſible alteration in the ſeaſon. For three weeks paſt ſcarcely a day has paſſed without a violent ſtorm of thunder, lightening, and heavy rain, quite unuſual here in the month of July; and the damage done to the fertile lands at the foot of the mountain, by torrents of water mixed with the Puzzolane aſhes (and which immediately formed into a hard cement) is inconceivable. In ſome places the ſoil is covered by it not leſs than four feet in thickneſs. The volcano begins now to make its appearance from under the clouds of aſhes and ſmoke which had obſcured it ever ſince the beginning of the eruption. It has loſt near one third of the height of its cone; and to make up for that loſs, ſeveral very conſiderable conical hills, with deep and extenſive craters, ſome not leſs than a mile in circumference, have been formed by the late eruption, and are viſible on its flanks toward the ſea ſide.

AFFAIRS of POLAND.

Warſaw, June 20.

GEneral Kotciuſko was defeated by the Pruſſians on the 7th inſtant, ſince which Cracow has been taken by the latter. On the 17th, there was again a general inſurrection in this city. One part of the inſurgents, drums beating and colours flying, marched to the town-houſe, before which they drew up on the parade. Hereupon one of the ringleaders, of the name of Konopka, harangued the multitude, and repreſented to them the unjuſtifiable conduct of the national council and the criminal tribunal, which were ſtill protracting the trials of thoſe offenders who notoriouſly were guilty of high treaſon againſt the nation. The expence of keeping them, he added, was very great; and it remained doubtful whether they would ever be puniſhed at all, unleſs the people, making uſe of their undoubted right, puniſhed themſelves the traitors, &c. This ſpeech produced the deſired effect, and the populace cried out, that they ſhould not ſeparate before they had erected gallows, and hanged the traitors. The gallows were immediately erected. The criminal tribunal had diſcharged ſome hundreds of perſons that had been arreſted; but againſt thoſe who remained in priſon no ſentence had been pronounced.

The preſident Zakerzewſky exerted his utmoſt efforts to perſuade the mob at leaſt to delay the execution till the judgment was paſſed, and ordered the gallows to be taken down; but the enraged multitude ſoon erected them again, and ſacrificed to their fury the following eight perſons: De Boſcamp, privy-counſellor; De Gabowſky; Majewſky, attorney-general of the crown; Koguſky and Pietka; Wuljers, a counſellor and ci-devant member of the proviſionary-council; prince Anthony Czetwertinſky, and prince Maſſaltſky, the only male heir of that ancient and illuſtrious family, and uncle of the princeſs de Ligne, at Vienna. The exertions of the preſident Zakerzewſk prevailed at laſt on the mob to reſpite the other priſoners, whoſe number amounts to 169, and the populace diſperſed without doing any other miſchief.

Berlin, Aug. 9. We anxiouſly expect the reſult of the ſiege of Warſaw, which has actually begun; although it cannot be called a ſiege in form, as that city is not a fortified place, only at that part of it which is expoſed to the Pruſſian troops is covered by an entrenched army under Koſciuſko, which muſt be forced before Warſaw can be obliged to ſurrender. The attack began on the 31ſt of July, when ſome hundreds of bombs were thrown into that city, and ſeveral houſes are ſaid to have been burnt in the ſuburbs. Since that time the bombardment is reported to have ceaſed. Koſciuſko has an army of 40,000 men, well armed, and is reſolved to defend himſelf to the laſt.

From the Pruſſian army before Warſaw, Aug. 4. We have approached nearer to the entrenched army of Koſciuſko, and are at work erecting batteries againſt Warſaw. The Poles keep up a tremendous fire day and night, which coſts us a great many lives. We have already poſſeſſed ourſelves of ſome of their works; we have one very important one to take, and then Warſaw cannot hold out long.

The number of ſtraggling parties of inimical Poles are ſtill numerous and troubleſome, and we have been obliged to burn ſeveral villages where they ſheltered themſelves; the woods alſo are full of them.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

JULY 30.

YESTERDAY, at Guildhall, came on to be tried, an action brought by lady Elisabeth Luttrell against Daniel Isaac Eaton, a bookseller in Newgate, for a false and scandalous libel, in a pamphlet called 'The Female Jockey Club.' Lord Kenyon having given a very able charge to the jury, after he had summed up the evidence, the foreman immediately pronounced the defendant *guilty*; but the jury did not all concur, in consequence of which they retired, and considered of their verdict about an hour and an half, and then gave the following unnecessarily-tautological verdict: *Guilty of printing and publishing that Book, which is a Libel.*—Lord Kenyon ordered the clerk to take the verdict generally *Guilty*; and observed, that, upon the evidence adduced, it would have been a reproach to the administration of justice, if that verdict had not been given.

AUGUST 1.

The commissioners appointed by an act of the last session of parliament, for the purpose of issuing Exchequer bills for the relief of the commercial credit of the nation, have made their final report upon the business entrusted to them.

It appears that this measure has completely answered the purpose for which it was intended. The public has seen, that the intention was scarcely announced, before it began to operate most powerfully, and to stop the progress of that evil which at one moment seemed to threaten with ruin the whole commercial part of the nation. By this report of the commissioners it appears, that the whole sum advanced to relieve different persons, has been repaid, and that there remains a profit to the nation, arising from the difference of interest paid by the borrowers, and that due on the exchequer bills.

The following is a short statement of the account.:

Amount of the exchequer bills granted under the act of par.	5,000,000
Lent upon diffesent applications,	2,202,200

There were applications for above 1000l. more; but they were withdrawn, as the power of obtaining the loan rendered it in these instances unnecessary to obtain it. There were also some few applications refused, the parties not being able to give the security required by the act of parliament.

Profit arising from interest paid by the borrowers,	13,035
Expence of executing the commission,	8,689
Profit paid into the exchequer,	4,348

To the gentlemen who have executed this duty, the mercantile part of the nation are much indebted; but they are more particularly so to the indefatigable industry and the penetration of the minister, to whom, it is said, and we believe justly, this measure is entirely to be ascribed.

AUGUST 2.

At the West Riding sessions, Yorkshire, James Gleadhill, a reforming schoolmaster at Halifax, was found guilty of publishing and distributing a seditious hand-bill in that town and neighbourhood, exciting the people to take up arms, plant the tree of liberty, &c. He was sentenced to be imprisoned in York castle one year, and until he find sureties for his good behaviour for two years; himself to be bound in 100l. and two sureties in 50l. each.

At Rotheram sessions, Charles Gaskin, of Sheffield, filesmith, found guilty of sedition, in damning the king, queen, and all the royal family, and also the government of this country, was sentenced to be confined in a solitary cell in the house of correction in Wakefield, for three months.

AUGUST 5.

The Trinity Board, in their nautical researches of the present summer, have discovered, by the most accurate soundings of what are denominated the Goodwin Sands, adjoining to the Downs, a spacious deep Bay, nearly in the center of them, capable of affording safe riding for the largest ships in all weathers. This Bay they have ordered to be marked out immediately with the necessary buoys and beacons. By this valuable discovery, our mariners will now find a safe anchorage in that latitude of our own coast, where hitherto they have only looked for a watery grave.

AUGUST 6.

Bite of a Viper.—Notice has lately been taken of two persons who have died by the bite of a viper. The remedy in such cases is so simple, that it can always be obtained. It is no other than good sweet oil, which being for a considerable time rubbed into and round the wound, and two or three spoonfuls taken inwardly, though the

the poiſon may have taken conſiderable effect, ſo as to render the patient of a dark jaundiced hue, and reſpiration difficult, will preſently relieve and finally work a complete cure. A viper-catcher, who, ſome years ago, uſed to ſupply the apothecaries of Bath and Briſtol with this ſerpent for medical purpoſes, ſuffered himſelf to be bitten more than once, in the preſence of ſeveral perſons, and permitted the ſymptoms, in conſequence, to become extremely alarming, when the application of the remedy abovementioned ſpeedily and effectually recovered him.

AUGUST 7.

On Wedneſday, the 30th ult. came into Leith Roads, his majeſty's brig, King's Fiſher, J. Le M. Goſſelin, commander, who relates, that on the 24th ult. he retook the Dundee Greenlandman, of Dundee, going into Bergen in Norway; which veſſel, with the Raith, of Leith, was taken by a ſquadron of French ſhips on the 21ſt. The Dundee alſo picked up a boat at ſea with nine Frenchmen, who ſaid they were part of a crew of ſixteen men, who were put on board the Raith Greenland ſhip, to navigate her into Bergen, but that the mate and another man had retaken her, and ſent them adrift in the boat.

The Royal George Exciſe cutter brig is arrived in Leith Roads, and has on board ſeven Frenchmen received from on board the Raith of Leith, at Lerwick, retaken by Burriſh Lyon the mate, and another man, from ſixteen Frenchmen. The latter having indulged very freely with a caſk of whiſky, ſeven of them were drunk, whom Mr. Lyon ſecured below: The remaining nine he and his companion attacked on deck with a whale ſlicing knife, drove them into a boat along ſide, and immediately cut her adrift. The Royal George ſaw the veſſel with a ſignal of diſtreſs, and helped her into Lerwick.

Cowes, Auguſt 8. A melancholy accident happened at this port: about eight this morning, a party from one of the tranſports, under convoy of the Nonſuch man of war and ſome gunboats, lying at anchor here, bound to Jerſey, obtained permiſſion to land that they might take the benefit of ſea-bathing from the ſhore. Returning to their ſhip, the wind blowing ſtrong from the North, and tide at ebb, the ſmall boat in which they were, not being more than 14 feet long, overſet, and 16 ſoldiers of the 32d regiment, and two ſailors, out of 28 perſons, who firſt left the veſſel, were drowned: the others were picked up by the boats in the harbour.

AUGUST 8.

A few days ago, at the ſuit of his majeſty, the cauſe reſpecting the marriage of prince Auguſtus Frederick, and lady Auguſta Murray, which had been ſolemnized at the pariſh church of Saint George, Hanover-ſquare, was finally determined in the Arches Court, Doctors Commons; when ſir William Wynne delivered the judgment of the court, that the ſaid marriage was utterly null and void; and alſo declared that a former marriage pretended to have been at Rome, was alſo, by the law of this country, invalid and illegal.

AUGUST 9.

The London Gazette of this evening contains the following proclamation:

At the Court at St. James', the 6th of Auguſt 1794, preſent the King's Moſt Excellent Majeſty in Council.

Whereas, in many of his majeſty's vice-admiralty courts in the Weſt Indies, ſentences of condemnation have paſſed againſt ſhips and goods belonging to the ſubjects of the United States of America; and whereas, from ignorance of the rules reſpecting the times of appealing, or from inability to find the ſecurity required, or from other juſt and reaſonable impediments, the claimants have been prevented from duely entering and proſecuting their appeals from the ſaid ſentences: and whereas it hath been repreſented to his majeſty, on their behalf, that they are deſirous of entering and proſecuting the ſame; his majeſty is thereupon pleaſed, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, that the ſaid parties ſhall be admitted to their reſpective appeals, notwithſtanding the ordinary times for entering and proſecuting the ſame may have elapſed, provided the ſame are entered and proſecuted within a reaſonable time, to be approved by the lords commiſſioners of appeals in prize cauſes.

STEPH. COTTRELL.

York, Auguſt 9. On Thurſday, at two o'clock, John Wilkinſon, of this city, was detected, in court, picking the pocket of David Armytage of his handkerchief. Sir William Milner granted a warrant to ſearch his houſe, when 36 ſtolen handkerchiefs, ſix pair of gloves, and other articles, were diſcovered. A bill of indictment was immediately preſented to, and found by, the grand jury for the above theft. He was tried, convicted, and ſentenced to ſeven years tranſportation before five o'clock the ſame afternoon. It is ſaid

he is poſſeſſed of property amounting in value to ſome hundred pounds.

And yeſterday George Thompſon was tried before Mr. juſtice Lawrence, for publiſhing a ſeditious libel. It was entitled '—' A Serious Lecture for the Faſt Day;' and ſtated, that the combined powers are deſpots and tyrants, and that their conduct will bring down divine vengeance on them. The author compares the preſent times to thoſe mentioned in the 18th chapter of Kings.—The indictment ſtated, that the author thereby meant to charge the king of England with being a tyrant. The caſe was ſo made out; and the jury brought in their verdict of—'Guilty of Publiſhing *only*.' The judge ſent them back, and deſired they would conſider certain parts of the libel: they returned, and ſaid they had; and then brought in their verdict—Not Guilty.

AUGUST 11.

A caſe of conſiderable importance lately came on to be heard before the magiſtrates of Lincolnſhire, at the general quarter ſeſſions. It was the king againſt William Hardy. The defendant, who was one of the principal linen drapers *reſident* at Louth, in the county of Lincoln, rented a ſhop *by the year* at Alford, a market town about twelve miles from Louth; attended ſuch ſhop *every market and fair day* at Alford, to ſell his goods by *retail*, and kept it *ſhut* on other days. George Cuthbert, one of the drapers at Alford, gave information to a magiſtrate, that the defendant, on a certain day (when it was alleged no public mart, market, or fair was held there) expoſed goods to ſail by *retail* in the ſaid ſhop; for which expoſure he was thereupon, and upon the teſtimony of a witneſs, convicted in the penalty of 10l. under the act of 29 Geo. 3. chap. 26. which declares, 'that (except in public marts, markets, and fairs) no hawker, pedlar, petty chapman, *or any other trading perſon opening a room or ſhop*, and expoſing to ſale any goods by *retail* in that town, pariſh, or place, ſuch perſon not being a houſeholder there, or the ſame not being *the uſual* place of his abode, *or of his carrying on buſineſs*,' ſhall expoſe to ſale any goods whatſoever in any *market town* in England, without being ſubject to the penalty of 10l.—The defendant appealed againſt the conviction to the next general quarter-ſeſſions, held at Spilſby on the 2nd inſt. when the court unanimouſly quaſhed the conviction, upon the principle, 'that no man is reſtrained by law from carrying on buſineſs in more places than one, nor from opening or ſhutting his ſhop, held by the year, at pleaſure;' and therefore that the appellant's ſhop at Alford, held and frequented by him in the manner beforementioned, muſt be conſidered as '*a uſual place for carrying on buſineſs*,' where he had an indubitable right to ſell his goods by *retail at any time*.'

AUGUST 12.

Accounts were received at Lloyd's, on Wedneſday, of the arrival at St. Malo, of nine cartel ſhips, with French priſoners, from Barbadoes, Martinique, and Guadaloupe.—The names of the ſhips are, the Six Brothers, Stuart; the Sally, Ferguſon; the London, Kewan; the William, Burnet; the Betſey, Brown; the Benjamin and Eliſabeth, Jones; the Britannia, Gowland; the Providence, Gardner; and the Atalanta, Emery. The above veſſels, as ſoon as they arrived at St. Malo's, were ſeized by the French, contrary to the laws of nations as well as of juſtice and humanity, and the captains and crews, after being deprived of all their perſonal property, put into priſon.

Maidſtone, Auguſt 14. At our aſſizes this day, Mr. Thomas Pureſoy was indicted for the wilful murder of colonel Roper, in a duel which took place on the 21ſt of December 1788. The interval which had occurred between that time and the preſent proſecution, was not aſſignable to the proſecutors, as Mr. Pureſoy had, for the greater part of the time, been out of the kingdom.

In 1787, major Roper was commander in chief at the iſland of St. Vincent, and Mr. Pureſoy was an enſign in the 66th regiment. The latter having obtained leave of abſence, had a feſtive day, with ſome others of the junior officers, in which they committed ſuch exceſſes as occaſioned a complaint to major Roper; by whom the leave of abſence was recalled. The remonſtrances of Mr. Pureſoy were made in ſuch a ſtyle as to induce major Roper to bring him to a court-martial. By their verdict he was declared to have forfeited his commiſſion, and this verdict was afterward confirmed by his majeſty.—This was the origin of the diſpute, which had afterward ſuch a fatal termination.

The evidence, particularly that of general Stanwix, the ſecond to col. Roper, was extremely favourable to the priſoner, who, being called upon for his defence, ſaid, that he had 'entertained no malice againſt the deceaſed. He had been by a call of honour, or, more properly ſpeaking, driven by the tyranny of cuſtom to an act,

which in early life had embittered his exiſtence, but without which, he was taught to believe, that he ſhould loſe all the conſolations which ſociety could afford. The laſt challenge, he obſerved, had come from colonel Roper; and as ſome expiation for his offence, he had already ſuffered nearly ſix years of exile, and nine months of cloſe confinement.'

The latter part of his addreſs was read from a written paper by Mr. Erſkine, the feelings of Mr. Purefoy being ſuch as to overpower his utterance.

The priſoner called nine gentlemen to his character, moſt of whom had known him from early life. They all ſpoke to the general mildneſs of his character, and the good-humoured eaſe and averſion to quarrel, which marked his general deportment.

After a charge by the judge, Mr. baron Hotham, the jury, without heſitation, returned their verdict 'Not Guilty.'

AUGUST 17.

Yeſterday morning about two o'clock, a fire broke out on board the Neptune, Weſt-India ſhip, lying in the Pool. Her cargo, no part of which had been landed, conſiſted entirely of rum. She was immediately towed out of the tier, and run aſhore on the Southwark ſide. She burnt very furiouſly till late in the evening, but without extending the calamity to other veſſels. By the quantity of rum deſtroyed on board the Neptune, the fiſh in the Thames were ſo affected, as to float up with the tide in ſuch numbers, that they were collected by the people, on both ſhores, in baſkets full.

And this morning, between one and two o'clock, a fire broke out at Aſtley's Royal Saloon, on the Surry ſide of Weſtminſter-bridge. This was ſoon totally deſtroyed, with ſeveral houſes in front of the Weſtminſter road; and alſo the Pheaſant public houſe, and ſome dwellings in Stangate ſtreet. All Mr. Aſtley's horſes were ſaved; but the whole of the ſcenery, wardrobe, &c. was conſumed.

AUGUST 18.

On Thurſday diſpatches were received at the Eaſt-India houſe, over land from Buſſorah, which were brought thither by the Huſſar cutter from Bombay, which place ſhe left about the middle of March laſt.

The object of the Bombay council in ſending this overland diſpatch was to acquaint the board of controul and Eaſt-India directors, of the death of Madajee Scindia, the great warlike Mahratta chief, who has ſo frequently embroiled all India in hoſtilities.

Private letters from Bombay mention, that, in conſequence of ſome diſcontents which had broken out in the province of Oude, ſir Robert Abercrombie had left Bombay, and was gone with a detachment of our forces into the Oude country, to act as circumſtances might require.

In conſequence of Tippoo Sultan having fulfilled his engagements punctually with the government of Madras, his two ſons, who were kept as hoſtages, have been ſent back to Seringapatam, highly ſatisfied with the treatment they have experienced during their ſtay at Madras.

AUGUST 20.

On Saturday evening the coroner's inqueſt was taken at the Barn public houſe, St. Martin's-lane, on the body of George Howe, who on Friday afternoon threw himſelf from a three-pair-of-ſtairs window in Johnſon's court, Charing-croſs, when he was killed on the ſpot. The jury returned their verdict, 'Accidental Death in endeavouring to eſcape from illegal confinement in a houſe of ill fame.'

On account of the above accident, a very numerous populace aſſembled on Friday evening. On Saturday morning they demoliſhed the whole inſide of the houſe, and broke the windows of two other houſes. They were increaſing yeſterday, but were kept under by the horſe and foot guards.

The populace were exceedingly riotous again on Monday night at Charing-croſs, which occaſioned the picquet guard to be called. The gunſmith, the corner of Angel court, firing once or twice on the inſurgents, they broke his windows before the military arrived, and afterward pelted and maltreated the ſoldiers, who forbore extremities, and diſperſed them with little miſchief.

On Monday two men were brought before W. Addington, eſq. at the Public-office, Bow-ſtreet, on a charge of ſtealing from the perſon of Edward Barret one ſilver watch, one pair of ſilver buckles, and ſeveral articles of wearing apparel, &c. his property. It appeared by the teſtimony of the proſecutor, that, ſome time ſince, he was trepanned by the priſoners, who confined him in a houſe in Whitcomb-ſtreet, where they compelled him to ſign an atteſtation; after which they robbed him of the above-mentioned articles, and then ſent him to Banbury to join the regiment. On telling theſe circumſtances to the commanding officer, the two men who

who brought him down were taken into cuſtody, and he was ſent up again to London. On application to a magiſtrate, the priſoners were alſo apprehended, both of whom in their defence ſaid, that the proſecutor had willingly enliſted, and poſitively denied any knowledge of his being robbed: they were, however, fully committed for trial, the proſecutor ſwearing to the above ſtatement of the tranſaction.

Yeſterday evening, about eight o'clock, a great concourſe of people aſſembled before the White Horſe public-houſe, Whitcomb-ſtreet, a reputed houſe for receiving recruits. Immediately after their aſſembling they attacked the houſe, deſtroyed the furniture, and ſpilled the liquors in the ſtreet. The guards were at length called out, and a reinforcement was ſent for to Kenſington. This is the one from which the poor man mentioned in the preceding paragraph was ſent to Banbury.

Joſeph Stainſby, the man who was taken out of the houſe in Johnſon's-court, in the ſmall-pox, is dead.—This houſe was uſed by the perſons called Crimps, who make a practice of kidnapping young men into the ſervice; and Joſeph Stainſby, a perſon they had confined here, had been ill ſome days with the ſmallpox, without any medical care of him in this deplorable ſituation. The magiſtrates, who were laudably employed in inveſtigating this buſineſs, ſent him to St. Martin's workhouſe, to be taken proper care of.

AUGUST 22.

The ſum total of the ſubſcription, originally begun at Lloyd's coffee houſe, and promoted with great zeal in various other parts, for the benefit of the ſufferers by the late fire at Ratcliffe (*See* page 69) amounts to 16,000l. and 9d. which the committee for the management of the ſubſcription, who ſat daily at the court houſe in Welcloſe ſquare, have informed the public they imagine to be ſufficient to anſwer their benevolent views; but that, if the contrary ſhould appear, they will again ſolicit their benefactions.

AUGUST 23.

Thurſday morning the lord-mayor cauſed to be circulated and poſted throughout the city a printed requeſt, that every houſe-keeper would uſe his utmoſt to prevent any child or ſervant from appearing in the ſtreet at night, ſetting forth the conſequences that might enſue. An abridgement of the Riot Act, and of the Proclamation therein, were alſo printed and poſted in various parts. An extraordinary number of conſtables were appointed to watch in every part of the town. The gentleman of the aſſociation paraded all night, as a corps of obſervation; and a great number of guards were kept at the manſion-houſe, to march at the ſhorteſt notice.

On Saturday morning laſt, at Danbury camp, Eſſex, the whole line being drawn out in honour of the duke of York's birthday, on the *feu de joye* being fired, the adjutant of the Leiceſterſhire militia fell ſuddenly from his horſe in front of his regiment; ſome officers running to his aſſiſtance, found, to their aſtoniſhment, that he was wounded: on being carried into his tent, the ſurgeon diſcovered that he had received a ball a little below the left breaſt, which no inſtrument could reach, nor has it ſince been extracted, ſo that his life is deſpaired of. The whole regiment were immediately ordered to ground their arms, when every firelock and cartouch box was examined, but nothing was found that could lead to a diſcovery of the offender. The ſoldier ſuſpected of this deliberate villany is the brother of a private, who, with four other men, received one hundred laſhes the preceding day, for leaving their work as tailors to the regiment.

No evidence had, on Thurſday morning, been collected, by which the offender is likely to be diſcovered.

The whole camp was naturally thrown into great conſternation, in conſequence of this extraordinary event.

The purchaſers of ſaltpetre, who ſuffered by the late fire, have preferred a petition to the Eaſt India company, praying that the ſaltpetre ſaved by the company's ſervants, and which was the property of the company, might be held as a common ſtock, and divided in proportion to the ſeveral loſſes; which has been complied with.

Yeſterday came on, before Mr. alderman Boydell, the adjourned hearing of the caſe of David Barclay, late confined in the priſon of the Fleet, but diſcharged at the laſt quarter ſeſſions under the Inſolvent Act.

The circumſtances attending this buſineſs occaſioned much curioſity, being the firſt of the kind that has occurred ſince the act was paſſed, and are briefly as follow:

The defendant was apprehended on Thurſday, by virtue of a warrant from a city magiſtrate, under charges of having obtained his diſcharge aforeſaid ſurreptitiouſly; and that, from the nature of the tranſaction between him and the plaintiff, he was not entitled to the benefit of the bill.

After an examination of evidence in ſupport of the charges, the counſel for the defendant made a ſpirited and pointed reply of ſome length, wherein he exhibited the monſtrous miſchiefs that muſt ariſe, if proceedings of this kind were encouraged or countenanced, which could only tend to the ruin of the wretched individual, and the aggrandiſement of low attornies, that manifeſted itſelf in a ſtubborn attempt to fruſtrate the humane intention of the legiſlature, and be the endleſs ſource of litigations; and concluded with obſerving, that, as the nation, in its legiſlative capacity, had committed to the magiſtracy, a two-fold diſcretionary power with regard to this beneficent ſtatute, 'the one to diſpenſe its virtues, the other to protect its ſpirit,' he truſted, in this inſtance, that they would be mindful of the latter, and ſave it from a violent aſſault.

Mr. Barclay was immediately diſcharged.

AUGUST 26.

A cauſe was tried before the lord chief baron of the court of Exchequer, and a ſpecial jury, at the aſſiſes for the county of Warwick, brought by order of the poſtmaſter-general againſt Joſeph Whitmore, a carrier from Warwick to Birmingham, for illegally collecting and carrying letters. The lord chief baron, in ſumming up the evidence, obſerved, that it was a proſecution for which the Poſt-office deſerved great commendation; and that he truſted it would have an eſſential effect in preventing this illegal practice. The jury, without heſitation, found a verdict for the plaintiff generally, whereby penalties to the amount of 1500l. were recovered; but Mr. Newnham, his majeſty's counſel, who conducted the proſecution, was pleaſed to conſent to a verdict being taken for the two penalties of 5l. each only, with coſts of ſuit. It is to be hoped that this verdict will be a warning to all carriers, coachmen, and other perſons; many of whom, as this carrier did, take up letters tied round with a ſtring, or covered with brown paper, under pretenſe of their being parcels, which the learned judge obſerved was a flimſy evaſion of the law.

Saturday the following priſoners were committed to Newgate, viz.

Edward Hunter, for unlawfully aſſembling with divers other [illegible] Friday night laſt, at the [illegible]ale in Drury-lane, [illegible]i-ous manner, [illegible]te the perſons [illegible]ne ſame.

John Oſborn for feloniouſly and rioutouſly aſſembling with divers other perſons at the dwelling houſe of one Luke Caſe, in Golden-lane, in the pariſh of St. Giles, Cripplegate, on Wedneſday night laſt, and by force unlawfully beginning to demoliſh and pull down the ſaid dwelling-houſe.

AMERICA.

The circumſtances attending the defeat of general Wayne, which gave riſe to the report of the Engliſh troops having been engaged, will be found in the following extract of a letter from New-York.

'Accounts from general Wayne's army mention, that an eſcort of proviſion and ſtores for that army had been cut off the end of May, and the party guarding it totally put to the route, and many ſcalped, by a party of Indians, who had been to meet a party of the 24th regiment, under major Campbell, at the poſt near the Miami, eſtabliſhed by governor Simcoe; but none of the Britiſh ſoldiers or militia were with the Indians when this affair happened, though they were near.'

Another account, more circumſtantial, has been received from Quebec, under the date, July 1, which ſays,

'That the Indians had cut off the party and eſcort of the proviſions ſent from congreſs to general Wayne's army in May: that on the 3d of June, major Campbell had returned from the Miami to Fort Detroit with ſome of the party from the new-erected poſt on the Miami, about ſeventy miles from Detroit, and within the American line of territory;—that a party of Americans, about two hundred in number, had ſurpriſed and taken the ſtation of Preſque Iſle (a very favourable one for building and fitting out armed veſſels to act upon the lakes) that part of the Indians had returned to Detroit, and brought in thirty-two ſcalps and three priſoners of Wayne's proviſions eſcort; that Wayne's army, which had wintered in that quarter for the purpoſe of an early campaign, conſiſted of 2000 men, but was not apprehenſive of hoſtilities until the Indians attacked his eſcort; that an army of 1500 men, chiefly from the ſtate of New-York and Vermont, were on their march to reinforce general Wayne; the animoſities and feuds between the two parties ran ſo high as to make intercourſe dangerous to each; that the mercantile people looked upon an attack on all the Britiſh poſts as a likely event, and in general blamed lord Dorcheſter and governor Simcoe for fixing a poſt within the American limits, &c.

BIRTH

BIRTH.

Countess Camden, a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

Rev. sir Thomas Boughton, bart. to Mrs. Scott Jackson, of Bedford-square.

Viscount Conyngham, to miss Denison, daughter of Joseph Denison, esq. of Denbighs, Surry.

Sir James Murray, bart. M.P. to Henrietta Laura baroness Bath, only daughter of William Pulteney, esq. M.P. —Sir James has taken the name and arms of Pulteney.

Bamber Gascoyne, M. P. to miss Price, daughter of the late Charles Price, esq.

Mr. Linley, organist of Pentonville Chapel, to miss Wilkinson, of Islington. It is remarkable that they are both blind.

DEATHS.

Sir Archibald Murray, bart.

Prince Kaunitz, prime minister to the empress queen Maria Theresa, and the emperors Joseph II, Leopold II, and Francis II.

Major Halliday, brother-in-law to the earl of Dysert.

Admiral Balfour.

Earl of Waldegrave. *See Page 67.*

Of their wounds in the late naval victory, captain John Harvey, of the Brunswick, and captain Hutt, of the Queen. Monuments to both have been voted by the house of commons.

Gertrude duchess dowager of Bedford.

Henry Drummond, esq. M. P.

Sir Gilfred Lawson, bart.

Right hon. and right Rev. Dr. William Peel Pery, lord Glentworth, bishop of Limerick.

Sir Henry Martin, M. P. for Southampton; and comptroller of the navy.

Richard Burke, esq. M. P. for Malton, only son of the right hon. Edmund Burke.

Henry earl Bathurst.

Mrs. Gamon, wife of Richard Gamon, esq. M. P. for Winchester, sister to the late duke of Grafton and lord Southampton; and the daughter of their late mother, lady Augusta Fitzroy, by her second husband, the late James Jefferies, esq.

Winchcomb Henry Hartley, esq. M. P. for Berks.

John Tempest, esq. M. P. for the city of Durham.

George Coleman, esq. senior, the celebrated dramatic writer, and patentee of the theatre-royal in the Haymarket.

Frances baroness dowager Annaly.

PREFERMENTS.

Dr. William Bennet, bishop of Cork and Ross—Bishop of Cloyne.

Hon. and Rev. Thomas Stopford, dean of Ferns—Bishop of Cork and Ross.

PROMOTIONS.

Major-general Charles Leigh—Captain general and governor in chief over the islands of Nevis, St. Christopher, Montserrat, Antigua, Barbuda, Anquilla, and all other islands, commonly called the Charibbee Islands.

James Crawfurd, esq.—governor and commander in chief of the Bermuda or Somers Islands.

John earl of Upper Ossory, of the kingdom of Ireland—Baron Upper Ossory, of Ampthill, in Bedfordshire.

Edward lord Clive, of the kingdom of Ireland—Baron Clive, of Walcot, in the county of Salop.

Henry lord Mulgrave, of the kingdom of Ireland—Baron Mulgrave, of Mulgrave, in Yorkshire.

William Henry Lyttelton lord Westcote, of the kingdom of Ireland—Lord Lyttelton, baron of Frankley, in Worcestershire.

The right hon. Welbore Ellis—Baron Mendip, of Mendip, in the county of Somerset, with remainders successively to Henry Welbore Agar, viscount Clifden of the kingdom of Ireland, the hon. and rev. John Ellis Agar, second son, and the hon. Charles Baghal Agar, third son, of James late viscount Clifton; Welbore Ellis Agar, esq. one of the commissioners of the customs; and Charles Agar, archbishop of Cashel, and their respective heirs male.

Sir Henry Bridgeman, bart.—Baron Bradford, of Bradford, in the county of Salop.

Sir James Peachy, bart.—Baron Selsey, of Selsey, in Sussex.

Sir Thomas Dundas, bart.—Baron Dundas, of Aske, in Yorkshire.

Ashteton Curzon, of Pennhouse, in the county of Buckingham, esq.—Baron Curzon, of Penn, in the said county.

Charles Anderson Pelham, of Brocklesby in the county of Lincoln, esq.—Baron Yarborough, of Yarborough, in the said county.

Vice-

Vice admiral George Bowyer, vice-admiral Alan Gardner, rear-admiral Thomas Paſley, and rear-admiral ſir Roger Curtis, knt.—Baronets.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

JULY 26.

John Cadbury, of Exeter, grocer.

James Wood, of Weſtham, in Eſſex, callico-printer.

Iſaac Lindo, of Stamford-hill, exchange and inſurance-broker.

Ernſt Umbach, of Fieldgate-ſtreet, Whitechapel, victualler.

John Parry, of Liverpool, corn-merchant.

William Hillyer, of Tyler-ſtreet, Carnaby-market, hardwareman.

JULY 29.

George Brough, Lane-End, in Staffordſhire, mercer.

Thomas Hardy, of Liverpool, brewer.

George Grayſtone, of Tottenham, carpenter.

John Piercy, of Carſhalton, in Surry, baker.

Joſeph Harriſon, of Tydd St. Mary, in Lincolnſhire, jobber.

AUGUST 2.

Joſeph Fiſher, of Pollington, in Yorkſhire, ſeedſman.

Robert Spencer, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, fruit-merchant.

John Thurſtan, of Colcheſter, in Eſſex, merchant.

George Anderſon, of Otterburn, in Northumberland, dealer.

Robert Scott, of Middleton, in Lancaſhire, innholder.

Jonathan Bingley, of Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, flax-dreſſer.

Benjamin Hall, and John Thurſtan, of Colcheſter, in Eſſex, merchants.

Henry Jackſon, of Child's-place, Temple-bar, money-ſcrivener.

Thomas Wilſon, of Great Preſcott-ſtreet, Goodman's-field, money-ſcrivener.

AUGUST 5.

John Grundon, of Breighton, in Yorkſhire, miller.

Iſaac Grimſhaw, of Sheffield, in Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

John Wells, of Reading, in Berks, ſhoemaker.

Robert Cordran, of Great Yarmouth, in Norfolk, ſtationer.

Alexander Smith, of Chancery-lane, baker.

John Pierſon, of Hoxne, in Suffolk, apothecary.

AUGUST 9.

David Robinſon, of Newark-upon-Trent, in Nottinghamſhire, wheelwright.

Philip Moyſey the younger, of Plymouth, ſail-maker.

James Blencowe, of Brackley, Northamptonſhire, mercer.

Thomas Foreman, of Newmarket, in Suffolk, ſhopkeeper.

James King, of the Strand, warehouſeman.

Mary Petit, of Montague-ſtreet, Spital-fields, glaſier.

John Harriſon, of Fleet-ſtreet, breeches-maker.

Francis Slipper, of St. Alban's, in Hertfordſhire, grocer.

Jeremiah Royle, and Thomas Peach, of Manchester, cotton-manufacturers.

AUGUST 12.

John Mill, of Bidiford, in Devonſhire, mercer.

Horatio Kime, of Henrietta-ſtreet, Covent-garden, coal-merchant.

William Cuſtance, of Fakenham, in Norfolk, cabinet-maker.

Thomas Bartlett, of Walcott, Somerſetſhire, carpenter.

AUGUST 16.

Joſeph Cullurne, of Brown's-hill, in Glouceſterſhire, ſurgeon.

William Retten, of Oxford-ſtreet, linen-draper.

Ebenezer Sibly, of Titchfield-ſtreet, Marybone, merchant.

John Orgar, of New Round-court, St. Martin's in the Fields, victualler.

William Lahitte, of Panton-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, boot-maker.

John Mitchell, of Clement's-inn-paſſage, cordwainer.

AUGUST 19.

Joſeph Friedeberg, of Manſell-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, jeweller.

John Robinſon, of North-ſhields, in Northumberland, grocer.

Charles Tempeſt, and James Ormſton, of Manchester, merchants.

George Nunn, and Louiſa Mary Shepherd Nunn, of Portſea, Southampton, haberdaſhers.

John Wilſon, of Halifax, Yorkſhire, joiner.

William Atkinſon, of Everton, in Nottingham, ſhopkeeper.

John Slack the younger, of Holm Houſe, Yorkſhire, maltſter.

William Hodgſon, of Louth, in Lincolnſhire, merchant,

AUG.

AUGUST 23.

Edward Davis, of Snow-hill, cheesemonger.

Sarah Armstrong, widow, of Bath, ironmonger.

James Carvill, of Hampstead-road, victualler.

William Henry Horne, of Fenchurch-street, hatter.

Samuel Archer, of Leicester, hosier.

Ralph Gout, of Norman-street, St. Luke Old-street, watchmaker.

John Beddoe, of Ledbury, in Herefordshire, mercer.

AUGUST 26.

William Emery, of Arundel, Sussex, shopkeeper.

John Turner the younger, of Newport, in Yorkshire, victualler.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

AMOS' Theory and Practice of Drill Husbandry, 4to. 15s. boards.

Banished Man, 4 vol. 12mo. 16s.

Vicissitudes in Genteel Life, 4 vol. 12mo. 14s.

View of the History of Religious Knowledge from the Creation to the Establishment of Christianity, 3s. boards.

Money's History of the Campaign of 1792, 8vo. 7s. boards.

Clerk's Essay on Naval Tactics, part 1, 4to. 10s. 6d. boards.

Hodgkinson's Instructions to Farmers on managing Arable Land, 1s. 6d.

Relph's Inquiry into the Nature of Yellow Bark, 8vo. 3s. boards.

Alexander on the Nature and Cure of the Croup, 2s.

Weldon's Physiological and Chirurgical Observations, 2s. 6d.

Beresford's Æneid of Virgil, 4to. 1l. 5s. boards.

Count de Bruhl on the Investigation of Astronomical Circles, 1s. 6d.

Caroline Merton, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Cooper's Information respecting America, 8vo. 4s. sewed.

Rush's Account of the Yellow Fever, 8vo. 6s. boards.

Sibly's Medical Mirror, 8vo. 5s. boards.

Penrose's Essays, Physiological and Practical, 8vo.

Ellen Rushford, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Visit of a Week, 12mo. 3s. 6d.

Instructions for Young Dragoon Officers, small 8vo. 3s. boards.

Edward de Courcy, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Desault's Chirurgical Journal, 2 vol. 8vo. 15s. boards.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

August 16, 1794.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Bushels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat. s.	d.	Rye. s.	d.	Barley. s.	d.	Oats. s.	d.
Middlesex	52	2	36	0	25	10	24	7
Surry	52	2	35	0	30	0	24	10
Hertford	48	10	—		32	0	25	7
Bedford	46	7	34	4	—		25	9
Huntingdon	47	8	—		—		20	10
Northampton	51	4	36	0	30	5	27	3
Rutland	51	0	38	0	32	6	22	0
Leicester	57	0	—		36	8	25	10
Nottingham	59	10	41	9	34	0	25	8
Derby	55	0	—		—		20	0
Stafford	57	8	—		43	4	24	2
Salop	58	3	49	4	—		24	0
Hereford	56	2	41	2	40	8	25	1
Worcester	56	8	—		35	6	29	8
Warwick	57	7	—		—		30	7
Wilts	48	8	45	0	33	0	25	2
Berks	49	11	43	0	30	6	25	9
Oxford	51	6	—		34	8	26	8
Bucks	50	6	—		31	8	27	4
Brecon	57	7	44	10	31	11	17	8
Montgomery	58	1	—		—		18	3
Radnor	57	1	—		32	0	22	6

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Essex	49	3	32	0	33	0	27	0
Kent	48	3	—		27	6	23	11
Suffex	46	8	—		—		23	0
Suffolk	49	8	27	9	28	11	25	6
Cambridge	45	10	28	0	21	1	15	4
Norfolk	46	8	29	8	23	10	20	10
Lincoln	53	8	40	0	28	0	21	0
York	50	11	37	3	—		20	11
Durham	50	5	—		—		21	9
Northumberland	49	0	33	5	27	0	19	8
Cumberland	54	11	42	8	27	4	19	11
Westmorland	56	9	43	0	28	0	21	10
Lancaster	53	7	—		—		22	9
Chester	57	1	—		—		21	10
Flint	57	8	—		40	6	—	
Denbigh	59	11	40	2	35	1	22	1
Anglesea	54	0	—		34	0	16	0
Carnarvon	54	0	40	0	31	0	17	0
Merioneth	64	0	45	4	—		19	10
Cardigan	48	0	36	0	25	4	10	0
Pembroke	40	7	—		23	10	14	8
Carmarthen	49	0	—		28	0	14	8
Glamorgan	55	10	—		34	0	17	4
Gloucester	53	4	—		33	2	27	6
Somerset	53	0	—		28	0	17	8
Monmouth	58	9	—		—		—	
Devon	53	9	—		25	4	17	8
Cornwall	52	2	—		28	0	18	0
Dorset	50	5	—		—		24	0
Hants	47	7	—		—		24	8

Peck Loaf, 2s. 6d.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from JULY 29, to AUGUST 27, 1794, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot. Tic.
29	167 ¼	69 ⅛	68⅛a67½	85 ½	102 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	200 ½	14s.pr.				1¼dif.	
30	166	68 ¾	67⅛a7⅛	84 ⅞	101 ¾	20	9 ⅛		15				1 ½	
31	165 ½	68 ¼	67⅛a⅜	84 ⅛	101 ¼	20	9 ⅛	199 ¾	15				1 ⅝	18 17 10
1	165 ¼	68 ⅛	67⅛a⅜	85	101 ½	20	9 ⅛	199 ¾			69 ⅛		1 ⅝	
2	165	68 ⅛	67⅛a⅜	84 ⅞		20	9 ⅛	198 ¾					1 ⅝	
4	165 ¼	68 ⅛	67⅛a⅜	84 ⅞	101 ⅛		9 ⅛		12				1 ⅝	
5	165 ¼	68 ¼	67⅛a½	85	101 ¼		9 ⅛	199	10				1 ⅝	
6	165 ¼	68 ¼	67⅛a66¾	84 ⅞	101 ¼	20	9 ⅛	198 ¾	12		68 ¼		1 ⅝	
7	164 ⅞	68 ⅛	66¾a67	84 ⅞	101 ¼	20	9 ⅛	198 ¼	11	72 ¼		67 ⅛	1 ⅝	
8	164 ⅞	68 ⅛	67⅛a66⅞	84 ⅞	101 ⅛	20	9 ⅛	198 ½	12		68 ¼		1 ⅝	
9	164 ½	68 ⅛	67⅛a67	84 ¾	101 ⅛	20					68 ⅛	66 ¼	1 ⅝	
11	164	68 ⅛	66⅞a67⅛	84 ⅞	101 ⅛	20	9 ⅛				68	67	1 ⅝	
12														
13	163 ¾	68 ⅛	67⅛a67	84 ¾	101 ⅛	20	9 ⅛	198 ¼			67 ⅞		1 ⅝	
14	165 ⅛	68 ⅛	67⅛a½	84 ⅞	101 ¼		9 ⅛	199	16				1 ⅝	
15	165 ¼	69 ¼	67⅛a½	85 ¼	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛		16				1 ⅝	
16		69 ⅛	68⅛a67½	85 ⅛	101 ⅛	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	199 ½	16				1 ⅝	
18		69	67⅛a½	85 ⅛	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	199 ½	16				1 ⅝	
19	165 ⅛	69	67⅛a½	85	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	199					1 ⅝	
20	165	68 ¾	67⅛a½	84 ⅞	101 ⅛	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	197 ⅛	15		68 ⅛		1 ⅝	
21	165 ¼	68 ⅛	67⅛a67	84 ⅞	101 ⅛	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	198					1 ⅝	
22	164 ⅝	68 ⅛	67⅛a66⅞	84 ¾	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	197 ¼	15				1 ⅝	
23	164 ⅛	68 ⅛	67⅛a67	84 ⅞	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	198				66 ¼	1 ⅝	
25	164	68 ⅛	66⅞a⅛	84 ¼	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅛						1 ⅝	18 19 4
26	163 ⅛	68	66⅛a⅜	84 ⅛	101 ⅛	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	197 ¼					1 ⅝	
27		67 ⅞	66⅛a¼	84 ¼	101 ⅛	20 ⅛			14				1 ⅝	

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

ANECDOTES *of* HENRY *the Fourth of* France, *ſtyled the* Great: *With a beautiful Engraving, repreſenting a memorable Incident in the Life of that illuſtrious Monarch.*

THERE is ſcarcely any ſpecies of writing that is more inſtructive to the philoſopher, or more agreeable to readers of every deſcription, than anecdotes of the private life of perſons who have made a diſtinguiſhed figure in the higheſt ſtations of ſociety. General hiſtory often throws a falſe light on their characters: the ſplendour which ſurrounds them dazzles the eye, and prevents our having a clear and diſtinct view of them: but when they lay aſide the badges of their dignity, and deſcend from the height of their exalted ſtations to the common level of humanity; when we are allowed to contemplate them as huſbands, fathers, maſters, friends, and companions; when we are admitted to their tables, and their diverſions, and mix with them in the humble amuſements and agreeable relaxations of domeſtic life, we can then form a juſt idea of their characters; and while our ſelf-love is agreeably flattered with being admitted to a familiar intercourſe with ſuch illuſtrious perſonages, we have a clear conception that men are the ſame in every rank and ſtation of life.

In our Magazine for June 1773, we have given a fine portrait of this illuſtrious prince, with copious Memoirs of his Life and Reign, interſperſed with Anecdotes characteriſtic of the Man as well as of the Sovereign; and in our Magazine for May laſt are ſome Obſervations on his Character, and of the wonderful change in the ſentiments of the French nation, reſpecting the veneration which, for ages together, they entertained for the ſovereign authority. To theſe obſervations were affixed a beautiful engraving, repreſenting a memorable incident in his life, and to which, we hope, the plate annexed will be deemed a pleaſing companion.

The education which this great man received was calculated to make him fond of woodland ſcenery and the ſports of the field. Sent to a remote caſtle, amid the dreary rocks in the vicinity of the Pyrenean mountains, delicacy had no part in the education of the youthful Henry. His ordinary food was brown bread, cheeſe, and beef. He was clothed, like other children of the country, in the coarſeſt ſtuff, and was inured to climb and rove over the rocks, often barefooted and bareheaded. Thus, moreover, by habituating his body early to exerciſe and labour, he prepared his mind to ſupport with fortitude all the viciſſitudes of his future life.

How much more intereſting to the truly ſentimental reader (the reader who reflects on what he reads, with a view to extract uſeful wiſdom from it) are the rural exploits of young Henry, amid the craggy rocks of Bigorre and Bearn, than the feats of the plumed hero in the field of battle, or the deportment of the auguſt monarch ſurrounded by his courtiers in the Tuileries or the Louvre!

Hunting was ever the favourite diverſion of this monarch. He often ſtrayed from his attendants, and met with ſome adventures which proved pleaſant to himſelf, and evinced the native goodneſs of his heart, and an affability of diſpoſition which charmed all who had an opportunity of obſerving it.

Such was the incident which is the ſubject of the annexed plate. Being on a hunting party, one day, in the Vendomois, he ſtrayed from his attendants, and, ſome time after, obſerved a peaſant ſitting at the foot of a tree: 'What are you about there?' ſaid Henry.—'I am ſitting here, ſir, to ſee the king go by.'—'If you have a mind,' anſwered the monarch, 'to get up behind me, I will carry you to

a place where you can have a good ſight of him.'—The peaſant immediately mounts behind, and on the road aſks the *gentleman* how he ſhould know the king.—'You need only look at him who keeps his hat on while all the reſt remain uncovered.' The king joins his company, and all the lords ſalute him: 'Well,' ſaid he, to the peaſant, 'which is the king?' —'Faikes,' anſwered the clown, 'it muſt be either you or I, for we both keep our hats on.'

But Henry had once a hunting adventure, that might have proved a more ſerious one, but for the extraordinary preſence of mind by which he was ever diſtinguiſhed. An adventurer, who had been in the Spaniſh ſervice, and called himſelf captain Michau, came to Nerac, to ſolicit employment from Henry, when he was only king of Navarre. The king was cautioned to beware of this deſerter, arriving from a country, which could not but be ſuſpected by every proteſtant. The mind of Henry was too full of honour, to be capable of entertaining ſuſpicions upon inſufficient grounds, and he therefore paid no regard to this advice. A few days after, as he was hunting in the foreſt of Aillas, being alone in a ſequeſtered place, he perceived Michau advancing to him, well-mounted, with a brace of piſtols at his ſaddle-bow. On his approach, he ſaid to him, with a firm tone of voice, 'Captain Michau, alight: I have a mind to try whether your horſe be as good as you pretend.'—Michau inſtantly obeys, and the king of Navarre mounts. Then taking out the piſtols, he ſaid to Michau: 'Have you an intention to kill any one, captain? I am aſſured that you deſign me for your victim: now your life is in my power, if I pleaſe to take it.'—He then diſcharged the two piſtols in the air, and commanded Michau to follow him. At firſt, he attempted to juſtify himſelf: but thinking it the ſafeſt way to make his eſcape, he ſet off two days after, and never again made his appearance.

This laſt anecdote is extracted from a work, entitled 'Hiſtoire de la Maiſon de Bourbon, par M. Deſormeaux,' and printed in the year 1788, before kings had ceaſed to be the objects of veneration in France. But what a revolution in ſentiment! The 'good Henry' (as every true Frenchman gloried in ſtyling him, and he of whom it is recorded, that he hoped to ſee the day, when the pooreſt peaſant in the kingdom could have a fowl for his Sunday's dinner) is now diſcovered to be a tyrant.—In a work entitled 'Les Prejugés Detruits—Prejudices Deſtroyed,' the author, M. Lequinio, in a ſerious invective againſt kings, thus expreſſes himſelf: 'It may be eaſily perceived, that by the word *tyrant*, I do not mean ſolely thoſe monſters of the human race, ſuch as Nero, Caligula, Charles the ninth, &c. My definition extends to almoſt all kings, paſt and preſent. I do not even except that king of France ſo often vaunted as 'the good Henry.' Although leſs cruel than moſt of his predeceſſors, he was aſſuredly no leſs deſpotic, and thought no leſs than they, that all France was deſtined for his pleaſure and his glory. If an innovator, during his reign, had dared to recall the recollection of their unalienable rights to the minds of the people, he would have been cruſhed under the weight of the royal authority. To prove this, let any one recollect the game laws enacted by this monarch, and then aſk himſelf if he were really a good king. By an article of his *ordonnance* on this ſubject it was decreed, that every peaſant found with a gun in his hand, near a thicket, ſhould be ſtripped naked, and beaten with rods around it, until the blood came. It was thus that the life of man was ſacrificed to the repoſe and exiſtence of hares and partridges, deſtined for the pleaſures of a prince, more culpable, perhaps, in reſpect to this barbarous law, than any of his predeceſſors; becauſe, educated among the indigent and unfortunate, he ought never to have permitted any other ſentiments than thoſe of

of gentleneſs and humanity to penetrate into his mind.'

If ſuch a law were indeed enacted, the prince who could enact it, ought to have poſſeſſed innumerable virtues, and to have been the author in other reſpects of diffuſive happineſs, to compenſate for this ſingle trait of tyranny. If the veil of adulation has hitherto concealed the truth, let that veil be torn away, and let the real character of this hitherto adored monarch be conſpicuous to univerſal obſervation. Let it be recollected, however, that the author of *Prejudices Deſtroyed* appears himſelf to write under the ſtrongeſt influence of *prejudice*, and that the title of his book ſhould operate as a caution with the reader againſt giving too great a degree of credit to what he aſſerts. He ſtyles himſelf Member of the National Convention of France, and Citizen of the Globe; and dating the year of publication, *Prima die Novembris* 1792, he adds, *anno eventu, quo reges et ſacerdotes, ab orbem terrarum obliterandi.*

On the PREVALENCE *and Sources of* FORTITUDE.

FROM a general ſurvey of the domeſtic hiſtory of man, one inference may be drawn full of conſolation in the moſt trying circumſtances, namely, that misfortune itſelf is not ſo ſharp and ſevere in inflicting pain, as man is ingenious and prompt at deviſing expedients to alleviate it. If we could collate the whole experience of our fellow creatures, how few are the calamities which we cannot ſurmount, how few the evils for which we do not find a remedy! Diſeaſe, the leaſt of all human calamities, becauſe it affects the body only, is perhaps the only one which we are not prepared to meet with cheerfulneſs, and bear with fortitude. The reaſon why it is ſo may generally be found in the manner of its attack. It attacks us when we are happy, and unwilling to quit a ſtate of happineſs; when we are apparently in health, and inſenſible to the evil of being deprived of it; when we are young, and cannot think of ſurrendering the joys of youth; when we are engaged in buſineſs, and have laid plans which are rudely interrupted; or when we are old, and by habit have become enamoured of life. It is particularly unwelcome, becauſe we have not invited it, we have made no preparation for its reception. It has not entered into our many calculations, and it aſſails us, if as a friend, when we think we ſtand not in need of ſuch friendſhip; if as an enemy, when we are not prepared to repel it. It conſiſts with no experience which we are diſpoſed to reſect to. We know that diſeaſe and death are the common lot of mankind, but we are willing to hope that an exemption will long be made in *our* favour, and that 'what is appointed to all men,' if it comes at all, will come when we are weary, and diſpoſed toward a change; when life is a burden and we wiſh to remove the load; when misfortunes embitter our reflections, darken our proſpects, and make us deſirous to viſit that country, 'where the wicked ceaſe from troubling, and where the weary are at reſt.'

Such are the general feelings of mankind as to diſeaſe; and it may be added that, beſide the unſeaſonable interruption it gives to their gladdening views, they are the leſs diſpoſed to conſider it in a kindly light, becauſe it is not merely the forerunner of calm diſſolution, but is accompanied with pain and anguiſh, with ſuch pain, indeed, as we know not how to bear, and ſeldom how to alleviate. But far different is the caſe with us, when afflicted with any other degree or ſpecies of misfortune. Here our wonder riſes, that man can bear ſo much and ſo patiently; that he is a hero in the midſt of a hoſt of enemies, and diſplays fortitude when all the means of defence ſeem to be taken from him.

What, indeed, would the world be, if this were not the caſe? What ſhould we hear in every ſtreet and in every village, but the clamorous cravings of poverty, the loud murmurs of diſappointed ambition, and the deep ſighs of deſerted worth? Inſtead of this, the ſharpeſt indignation is ſhort-lived, the cries of anguiſh are but once heard, and a calm dignity and ſteady perſeverance have been found to remove evils, which were at firſt thought to be irremediable, and to reconcile men to life who were ready with impious hands to deprive themſelves of it.

There appears to be a vaſt power in the human mind to repel the attacks of calamity, a ceaſeleſs ingenuity in contriving the means of eaſing a burden, and a happy forgetfulneſs of what, were it conſtantly remembered, would make us conſtantly miſerable. In truth, when we contemplate the maſs of human infelicity, we magnify it by miſconception. We fix upon a few things as the ſole cauſes of happineſs, and we think that all who have them not, muſt be unhappy. Thus a general ſentiment of compaſſion is excited which has no viſible object, and we become diſſatisfied with the lot of human nature, without an obvious cauſe. Our eſtimate of human happineſs is falſe, becauſe we are arguing from what we fancy will make *us* happy, and yet we go on in this erroneous calculation until we are blinded by its intricacy, and we can diſtinguiſh nothing but what is diſmal, black, and forlorn.

But ſuch is not the real ſtate of things. Let us only conſider one matter which has been ranked as a misfortune, *poverty*. It is certain that men are not, in the firſt place, agreed, as to what poverty really is, nor ſecondly, whether it can be juſtly conſidered as a misfortune. The majority, however incorrect their notions upon the ſubject may be, are for ever talking of ſomething which they call poverty, and which they ſay is a great misfortune. Now, if we except a few hundreds who are, to uſe the common phraſe, born to wealth, that is, literally to the inheritance of wealth acquired by their anceſtors, we ſhall find that human induſtry has always been employed in removing the evil of poverty. We are all born equally poor, but no ſooner do we begin to think and act, than we employ our faculties and our ſtrength to acquire wealth. The infinite pains, labour, and toil which men undergo for this purpoſe often afford a ſubject for aſtoniſhment. We ſee men emerge from the moſt contemptible obſcurity, and by labour, perſeverance, patience, and induſtry, ariſe to a degree of wealth ſo great as to enable them to diffuſe it around them to the benefit of others—and all this without any apparent pre eminence of talents or merit. Merit, indeed, we are very apt to deny to rich men, but it would be unfair to deny them the merit of acquiring what they had not before, and what others have endeavoured to acquire without ſucceeding.

The ſame perſeverance, the ſame forbearance and fortitude neceſſary in warding off the evil of poverty, will be found to be conſtantly exerted in leſſening, or removing every other ſpecies of evil. The loſs of riches, of friends, of rank, are all evils of a great magnitude. We think we ſhould ſink under them, and never more riſe to happineſs, if they fell to our lot. But how great is the fallacy of ſuch a ſuppoſition! We ſurvive them, we riſe ſuperior to them, we recover the riches we have loſt, we gain other friends in place of thoſe who have left us, and we learn to do without that rank which, it is now diſcovered, was the object of a ſilly ambition. Deſpair is not natural to man. It is wonderful that out of ſo many thouſand caſes of miſery, which we are certain occur every day, we meet with ſo few inſtances of deſpair. Seldom, indeed, does it occur, unleſs the mind has been tainted by improper notions of a divinity, or polluted by crimes, the full con-

conviction of which cannot be ſupported.

All this is wonderful, but why? Becauſe we are ever magnifying evils in imagination, of which we know not the experience. How ready is a man who is in the actual enjoyment of all the felicity, which plenty, friendſhip, conjugal happineſs, and perfect liberty afford, ready to look to a priſon with the moſt frightful horror, as a place where he could not exiſt a month, nor a week, nor a day! But is this the caſe in theſe gloomy manſions? Do we not ſee there many who enjoyed as great happineſs as I have juſt expreſſed, and have been thrown down from the envied ſtate, living in priſons, calm, collected, and apparently cheerful? Whence is this? But from a common occurrence, from what happens every day, namely, that we always think more harſhly of misfortune than it deſerves, and that no man can tell what portion of evil he is capable of ſuſtaining, until it pleaſe Providence to afflict him with it. Men who are in the enjoyment of felicity, and never knew misfortune, talking of how they would bear it, is a mere ſport and play of words. A man completely armed diſdains to calculate what his power would be, were he naked. And we always ſmile to hear men vaunt and boaſt how they would behave were they attacked by thieves, becauſe experience tells us that we cannot eſtimate the defence, until we know the nature of the aſſault. Yet more fooliſh is it to accuſtom ourſelves to ſpeak of any misfortune, as what we could never bear. No man knows how much he can bear. Let thoſe who think they have exactly calculated the amount of their ſtrength, who have weighed their fortitude in a balance, and are certain what it will ſupport and what it will not, let ſuch very correct eſtimators peruſe the narratives of an Inglefield, or a Bligh, of a Trenck, or a De la Tude, and then determine what man *can* ſuffer, what dangers he can brave, how long-lived is patience, how inexhauſtible is ingenuity, and how great is fortitude. Man is at all times an object of pious wonder. Man in danger is obviouſly the creature of a great and marvellous being.

Nature has implanted certain principles in us, of the ſtrength of which many men remain always ignorant, from the ſmooth and even tenour of their lives. They ſeldom, if ever, know what ſelf-defence will prompt, nor how ſtrong is the love of life. So ſtrong, indeed, is it, that all our efforts are to preſerve it from the rude and unexpected attacks of danger and misfortune. We know we are born to die, but to die ſuddenly, to be the prey of violence and tyranny enters not into our eſtimate, and we are furniſhed with great powers to reſiſt ſuch attacks. Works of fancy generally repreſent men as ſinking under miſeries, under diſappointments of the heart, as they are called; but of ſuch narratives, it is ſufficient to ſay that they are not founded upon a knowledge of human nature.

Whence, then, ariſes this fortitude? Why is it that man, apparently a feeble creature, much ſo in body, more ſo often in mind, can ſurvive ſuch dangers and difficulties as, in a ſtate of calm felicity, we cannot contemplate without horror? What but the Chriſtian religion can inſpire ſuch fortitude, by placing *hope* upon the beſt poſſible foundation; and by perſuading men to truſt in that power which never deſerts the oppreſſed and the innocent? It muſt be granted, indeed, that all men who have afforded inſtances of the fortitude I have been ſpeaking of, do not, perhaps, appear to have been actuated by ſuch hopes as Chriſtianity affords. We find inſtances of fortitude long before that ſyſtem was revealed by its Divine Author, and in nations which have never yet heard of his name. But ſuch inſtances compared with the others, are rather the efforts of animal life, than a firm and conſiſtent confidence in the means of ſafety.

We

We err frequently in not attributing to Chriſtianity *all* the good it has done in the world. The impreſſions which have been conveyed from generation to generation, through a ſucceſſion of parents, ſome good and ſome bad, have not been loſt. Human nature in general has been civilized, although many are unwilling to acknowledge whence ſo great a benefit has ariſen, and are deſirous of attributing it to the boaſted efforts of a weak reaſon, and a cold philoſophy. Let us not be deceived by ſuch miſrepreſentation. Humanity, benevolence, forgiveneſs of injuries, the love of peace and good order, are all the direct and poſitive fruits of the promulgation of Chriſtianity, and are never wanting but where that ſyſtem either has not reached, or is deſpiſed.

But, while we contemplate with wonder the great courage of mankind in bearing the innumerable ills of life, we ought not to omit the neceſſary and important reflection, that the foundation of this fortitude can be *innocence* only. It is this only which can encourage us to riſe ſuperior to the attacks of mi-fortune. A guilty mind is full of cowardice; its ſtruggles, if it makes any, are the convulſive efforts of deſpair; ill directed, blind, and unſucceſsful. But in innocence there is a native dignity, a true pride, and a firmneſs ſufficient for the common occaſions of life, and even for extraordinary emergencies. It is in vain to expect the ſame effects from oppoſite cauſes. It is in vain to expect that an oppreſſor will bear his downfall with courage, that a wickedly ambitious man will ſurvey his diſappointment with coolneſs, or that he who has meditated a ſcheme of villany, a fraud, or a ſeduction, can calmly ſee all his hopes fruſtrated, and his plans deſtroyed. Such are not the men who exhibit the intereſting ſpectacle of the good man bearing up againſt adverſity. What, indeed, have they to depend on, while the good ſenſe of a world is againſt them, indignation purſues all their ſteps, and they are not capable of any ſerious reflection which does not condemn them?

To them may be left the conſolation of deſpair and of deſperate acts. The men of innocent and pure minds, have little to fear from the worſt that can befall them in this world, and every thing to expect from the hopes of a better ſtate. Their experience ought to convince us of what their practice demonſtrates, that the evils of this life are in reality much leſs than in imagination, and can never be aggravated but by the conſciouſneſs of guilt, the impulſe of improper deſires, and the neglect of that wiſdom, 'whoſe ways are ways of pleaſantneſs, and all whoſe paths are peace.'

THE THREE SOCIABLES:

A CHARACTERISTIC SKETCH.

WE often obſerve an intimacy where we can diſcover no bond of union. Men of diſſimilar habits, talents, and humours meet together by ſome accident, become conſtant companions, and enter into a ſtate of friendſhip, which the reſt of the world think as unſtable as the wind, and as little to be depended upon as a rope of ſand. Yet they remain connected for years, and often death only parts them. It is certainly contrary to the commonly received notion of friendſhip that it ſhould ſubſiſt between perſons of diametrically oppoſite qualities, but the exceptions to this rule are not few, and *Morologus*, *Eutrapeles*, and *Tetricus* afford a remarkable one.

How or when they came together, as they know not themſelves, it would be impertinent in others to enquire. Accident probably firſt threw them in one another's way, and there was, it may be ſuppoſed, ſomething common between them which inclined them to meet

meet again by *assign*. Constant to each other they certainly are now, although no three men seem more unlikely to agree. Morologus is one of those talkers who, without displaying any uncommon, or indeed even common share of understanding, talks perpetually on all subjects, and hazards an opinion with equal pertinacity whether he does, or does not know any thing of the subject. Eutrapeles, with more understanding, but not more common sense, is a fellow of some facetiousness. He has read all the jest books, and can apply old jokes to new incidents. He is very happy at a pun, and is ever attempting something of the kind; good, they cannot be called, but it so happens, that the worse they are the more they produce laughter, and that is a main object with Eutrapeles. Tetricus possesses a considerable share of understanding and common sense, but he will give neither fair play; he is as froward as if he were childish, and morose even to a proverb. He is eternally complaining that Morologus talks when he should be silent. Morologus avers that he is out of humour without a cause; and Eutrapeles exercises his wit at the expence of both, in such a manner that they unite against him as a common enemy. Morologus talks him out of the field, and Tetricus frowns him into ill-humour. Thus do they agree in mixing their discordant ingredients.

Of the three it is hard to say which is the most agreeable companion. Morologus must have all the conversation to himself, and few companies will agree to a monopoly of that kind. Eutrapeles is so profoundly witty, as to be often unintelligible, and until he has begun the laugh, one is not aware that he has been attempting a jest. Tetricus would be equally silent and sour in all companies. It is in the *trio* only that his peculiar talents are called forth. Morologus, from being always employed in talking is inattentive, and Tetricus plays him many a practical joke by hiding his snuff-box, or his cane. Eutrapeles goads Tetricus to say something; the other growls his disapprobation, and Eutrapeles catches at some word which will make a pun. Morologus is offended at being interrupted in the midst of a long dissertation by what he calls a silly jest, while the wit resorts upon him, that a tedious speech is the best of all good jokes. In this manner, the trio torment one another, and from this arises the happiness which they enjoy in each other's company. No person but Tetricus would listen to the conversation of Morologus, and none but he would give effect to the wit of Eutrapeles, by being offended at it.

In the summer, they frequently travel, and each has his separate department. Morologus talks to the postilions and stable-boys. Eutrapeles exercises his ingenious talents at the expence of the waiters and bar-maids; and Tetricus, beside the privilege of settling the accounts, is entitled to find fault with every thing presented to them. Their dinners are a trial of skill in their several qualifications. Morologus prevents the waiters from obeying the call by keeping them in conversation: Eutrapeles makes jokes and puns upon the dishes, and is never so happy as when a calf's head, or a tongue and brains are upon the table, dishes which time immemorial have afforded a vast scope to the little efforts of little wits. Tetricus grumbles and carves, complains and eats, opening his mouth as often as his companions, but for a purpose *widely* different. When the wine is placed on the table, it affords Morologus an opportunity of explaining its history and properties. Eutrapeles has a number of very apposite *bon mots*; and Tetricus is highly gratified by having an opportunity of condemning it as too new, or too old, too sour, or cloudy, or, perhaps, 'it is not the wine they had before.' They all agree, however, in drinking copiously, and the talkative man becomes

speech-

ſpeechleſs, the witty man dull, and Tetricus is good humoured and lively, when he has nobody to ſhare in his mirth, for his companions are faſt aſleep.

Although theſe three ſworn friends quarrel at leaſt once at every meeting, they underſtand each other ſo well as to contrive to part upon the beſt terms, and propoſe to meet again with the moſt eager impatience. For this purpoſe, each takes an opportunity to gratify the other's foibles. Morologus compliments Rutrapeles on the poignancy of his wit; and the latter aſſures Morologus, that notwithſtanding his *reſerve* and avoiding *much* converſation, there is a depth and ſolidity in his remarks, which would acquire the 'applauſe of liſtening ſenates.'—And they both pacify Tetricus by declaring that his temper proceeds only from his wiſdom, and that his native good-humour is not the leſs pleaſing, becauſe it happens not to be dreſt in ſmiles. Beſide this, there are a few ſubjects on which they all agree, and the ſtarting of any one of them is ſure to quell the moſt violent commotions. Theſe ſubjects are, contempt of the married ſtate, and of early hours. They are all batchelors, and of a pretty advanced age, and they uſually begin to ſpend their evening, when other men are in their firſt ſleep.

Such is the union which ſubſiſts between theſe three extraordinaries, and what once, perhaps, was caſual, is now conſtant and neceſſary. The talker would have nothing to ſay, and conſequently no employment, if the wit were not to liſten to him; and the ſulky gentleman would fall into a lethargy, if the converſation of the one did not keep him awake, and the jokes of the other provoke his reſentment. In the chain of cauſes and effects, theſe men are uſeful ſome how to one another. Inſulated from the reſt of the world, they have found each other out by inſtinct, and are to themſelves a little world. It may be doubted, indeed, whether their union be rational, for how can that be rational which is not made up of rational parts? But they nevertheleſs enjoy a degree of happineſs, like that of the animal creation, which is juſt as much as they are capable of. To uſe the language of ſcripture, 'A ſtranger intermeddleth not with their joys.' They are to one another what no perſons beſide can be.

If we conſider the nature of that connexion, to which ſome people give the name of friendſhip, we ſhall probably think that the foregoing deſcription is not overcharged. Moſt men in ſeeking friends, plainly ſhow that they want only companions, thoſe who may divert the hours that muſt otherwiſe be conſumed in the greateſt of all pains, the pain of ſeeking reſources within themſelves, where none are to be found. How elſe can we account for the prepoſterous mixtures of promiſcuous company, the bad and the good, the boiſterous and the mild, the ignorant and the crafty aſſembling to produce a ſomething agreeable to the whole; or in other words, combining together to deſtroy that *time*, which would be too powerful for their ſeparate efforts. Combinations of the moſt abſurd kind may very naturally be expected, where men meet for no better purpoſes than to fly from their own reflexions, and loſe ſight of their more immediate duties. We may, by giving way to this humour, comply with the complimentary forms, and external appearances of human ſociety, but we cannot be ſaid to cultivate or to underſtand either our own happineſs, or our characters. And the only conſequence of thus avoiding the hours of ſober reflexion, is, that we ſhall ſoon ceaſe to think with wiſdom and act with propriety, for there never yet was an inſtance of a man who courted the promiſcuous companies of the low, the illiterate, and the groſs, and at the ſame time conducted himſelf in the affairs of human life, with a ſteady temper, a cool rectitude, and an unbiaſſed judgment.

DESULTORY OBSERVATIONS ON EPITAPHS.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

ALL nations have reſpected the ſolemnity of death; all have agreed that the period of diſſolution ſhould be contemplated with awful reverence. Profligates and heedleſs perſons may, in the intoxication of a moment, or in the gaiety of youthful paſſion, attempt to be witty on death, when it is at a diſtance, as cowards affect to deſpiſe danger; but when the king of terrors makes his ghaſtly approach, whether they themſelves or others are to be the object, there is an end to their gibes and jeers. Their minds are impreſſed with a melancholy which they cannot diſſipate, and they are led to meditate with a ſeriouſneſs which, for a time, muſt be ſincere. The moſt inſenſible of men does not viſit the houſe of mourning to indulge his mirth; the groans of the dying and the helpleſſneſs of the dead, are every where objects of, at leaſt, ſilent compaſſion, and tender reſpect. Such ſeem to be the natural feelings of mankind in all ages on this ſubject, and theſe are feelings which would be ill exchanged for the ferocious cruelty of incenſed barbarians, or the frigid maxims of an atheiſtical philoſophy.

Death itſelf is the moſt ſolemn of all things. To endeavour to make it leſs ſo would, if it were poſſible, be an inſulting triumph over our natures, an injury done to our moſt virtuous feelings, and a contempt of that being, who has appointed that all men ſhould paſs through this dark vale to the light of immortality. But it is *not* poſſible to diveſt ourſelves of the important reflections, which the ſight of death inſpires. It is not poſſible to view the remains of a human creature, pale, ſilent, cold, and motionleſs, without conſidering that this muſt ere long be our own ſituation. The man who can contemplate ſuch an object with indifference, is little to be envied; and he who attempts to ſuppreſs his natural feelings on ſuch an occaſion, muſt be denied the praiſe of goodneſs, and the ſenſe of religion.

If ſuch are the ſentiments of the majority of mankind, if they conſent to look upon death with a ſerious, if not a pious awe, whence comes it that our churchyards contain ſo many inſtances of wit and ridicule applied to the perſons interred in them? Whoever has travelled much in this kingdom, and, at a leiſure hour, has viſited theſe manſions of the dead, muſt be ſtruck with the number of ridiculous and abſurd witticiſms which appear in monumental inſcriptions. From the dates of them, we perceive that former times, times in which religion is ſuppoſed to have more abounded than at preſent, and to have been more ſeriouſly the occupation of the people, were far more remarkable for the offenſive wit of epitaph-writing than our own days. This, no doubt, is a little paradoxical; but we may get rid of it by ſaying, that although the preſent times do not affect ſuch high pretenſions to religion, yet they abound more in decency and common ſenſe. With few exceptions, ſome of which, perhaps, I may take notice of, our modern epitaphs are certainly leſs offenſive to ſeriouſneſs than the ancient ones, eſpecially where any man of genius or ability is employed in the compoſition of them.

The purpoſe of an epitaph is to convey to poſterity the memory and merits of ſome eminent perſon. Leſt this ſhould ſeem too narrow, it may be extended to performing the ſame ſervice for perſons endeared to a ſmall circle of friends by their goodneſs, their benevolence, or their other virtues. But in the latter caſe, the friends are egregiouſly miſtaken, if they think that poſterity will feel itſelf intereſted in the character of thoſe,

whoſe merits can be traced *only* upon a monument. Many a faithful huſband, affectionate father, and true friend lie buried with ſir Chriſtopher Wren in St. Paul's; and their merits are, no doubt, very pompouſly diſplayed in heroic verſe, but without exciting any intereſt in the beholder. Who, however, can read the ſhort and excellent notice of that great architect, without feeling as if his guardian angel had at once pointed out all his merits. '*Si monumentum requiris circumſpice.*—If you want a monument of him, *look around you!*' I have ever conſidered this as one of the moſt ingenious efforts of the complimentary ſtyle, nor do I recollect to have met with any thing of the kind.

I have ſaid that an epitaph is profeſſedly and allowedly panegyrical. I believe it is Dr. Johnſon who ſomewhere ſays, that we are not to expect that the writer of an epitaph is to confine himſelf ſtrictly to truth, but that he may enlarge and expand; an epitaph-writer is not, ſays he, to conſider himſelf *as upon oath*. It is true, he is not upon oath, and I may venture to affirm, few epitaph-writers ever conſidered themſelves as bound to declare the whole truth and nothing but the truth. Yet truth is a ſacred obligation, even in common converſation, and more ſacred ought it to appear to us, when we ſit down ſeriouſly to give information to poſterity. The character an epitaph conveys, muſt either be true or falſe. If true, it will depend on the fame of the object, whether it ſhall be intereſting to poſterity or not. If falſe, ſome perſon or other is deceived, while any memory of the deceaſed remains. It is impoſſible to conſider an epitaph as a mere matter of compliment from a rich heir, or executor, to his departed benefactor; nor as a vehicle to diſplay the wit and ingenuity of ſome poet, who never, perhaps, knew his merits.

The firſt error which ſtrikes us, on ſurveying the funeral monuments of any extenſive cemetery, is that which has been already alluded to; namely, the writer expecting that from poſterity, which poſterity cannot grant, a high-ſtrown reſpect for the deceaſed, although, but for theſe inſcriptions, they would never have been heard of. I recollect nothing of this kind ſo *importunate* with the reader, as the following in the church of St. Bartholomew the Great, London, on one Edward Cook, a phyſician:

Unſluice your briny flood; what? can you keep
Your eyes from tears, and ſee the marble weep?
Burſt out for ſhame, or if you find no vent
For tears, yet ſtay, and ſee the ſtones relent.

Now, if we had really known this worthy phyſician, I queſtion whether the moſt compaſſionate among us, would have been ready to open the *ſluices* of his *briny flood* at ſuch a call. But unfortunately we can know nothing of Edward Cook, and feel no intereſt in his death, and conſequently it would be unreaſonable to expect that we ſhould mingle our tears with thoſe of the *marble*. Theſe calls upon the feelings of the reader, are too frequent to have eſcaped the obſervation of any churchyard *perambulator*, but they are generally clogged with circumſtances which deſtroy their efficacy. We may pleaſe ourſelves, we may gratify our own vanity, or the vanity of the deceaſed by ſuch extravagant compliments, but, in truth, we are only endeavouring to prove that life is a jeſt, and that death is but an opportunity to be ingeniouſly witty.

Of all the pert conceits upon tombſtones, the moſt offenſive are thoſe which perhaps were leaſt intended to be ſo, I mean thoſe which treat ſacred ſubjects in a ludicrous manner. How pertly and abſurdly is the doctrine of *regeneration* alluded to in the following, which lately ſtood in St. Catherine Cree Church, on Mrs. Frances Croke.

Well borne ſhe was, but better borne again;
Her firſt birth to the Fleſhe did make her debtor
The latter in the ſpirit (by Chriſt) hath ſet her
Freed from Fleſhe's debts, Death's firſt and latter gaine,
Wives pay no debts, whoſe huſbands live and reign.

I need not point out to the reader, the alluſion to the law of debts between huſbands and wives, in the laſt line.

This monument is of conſiderable antiquity, and as I have already obſerved, the older the monuments, the more we meet with theſe quaint and pert witticiſms. If, as I am willing to allow, there was no intention to excite a ſmile, we muſt look for an excuſe in the nature of the language of the times. Certainly, what in many caſes was wit then would not be ſo now, and what then was ſerious, appears to us to be ludicrous. Different ages have different eſtimates on this ſubject. The riſible muſcles ſeem ſubject to revolutions as well as other things, and certain words and phraſes have their day of fame and faſhion. Such, at leaſt, is the caſe with poetry, and therefore it had been better if the memory of the dead had been conſigned to plain proſe. But let us not, however, blame the ſixteenth and ſeventeenth centuries, as excluſively poſſeſſing the talent of burleſquing ſacred things. I know few inſtances more in point than the following in Iſlington churchyard, dated 1769, and which may be read, ſo conſpicuous are the letters, from the ſtreet. After an account of the birth and death of the gentleman, whoſe name was *Thomas*, we meet with the following dialogue:

Liveſt thou, Thomas? Yes, with God on high.
Art thou not dead? Yes, and here I lye;
I that with men on earth did live to die
Died for to live with Chriſt eternally.

How janty and *quirpiſh* the queſtion and anſwer here! Can any man read this and feel a ſerious impreſſion? I would recommend to ſuch epitaph-writers to follow the example of a predeceſſor of theirs, who placed the following in the church of St. Michael's, Crooked-lane:

Here lyeth, wrapt in clay
The body of William Wray
I have no more to ſay.

It may be mentioned, that this church was deſtroyed in the fire of London, in 1666. That memorable conflagration, among the other advantages derived from it, removed a mighty maſs of ſepulchral inſcriptions, which did little honour to the deceaſed or the age they lived in. Twenty churches only were ſpared, in which a few ſpecimens remain. The reſt may be found in old authors, in Stowe, Weaver, and ſome in Maitland. One other only I ſhall give, which was in the old church of St. Alban's, Wood-ſtreet:

Hic jacet Tom Shorthoſe,
Sine tombe, ſine ſheets, ſine riches,
Qui vixit ſine gown,
Sine cloake, ſine ſhirt, ſine breeches.

I will venture to ſay, that the man who ſhould now be ſo fooliſh as to offer ſuch an inſcription to a church, or churchyard, would be refuſed with the contempt he deſerved.

It was with no pleaſure I obſerved upon a headſtone in Berkley churchyard, Glouceſterſhire, the following ludicrous epigram, for I cannot call it an epitaph;

Here lies the Earl of Suffolk's fool
Men called him Dicky Pearſe;
His folly ſerved to make fools laugh
When wit and mirth were ſcarce.
Poor Dick! alas! is dead and gone
What ſignifies to cry?
Dickys enough are ſtill behind
To laugh at by and bye.

This is ſaid to be the production of dean Swift, and it ſmacks of his pen, but I cannot believe that he intended it ſhould have a place on ground, conſecrated for far other purpoſes than the loud laugh of the vacant mind.

It may be allowable to write witty and ſatirical poems on fools and knaves, and publiſh them in any ſhape, *but that!*

To copy all the abſurd poetry, improper and pert alluſions, and other outrages on taſte and decency, to be found in churchyards, would be to fill a huge volume, and fill it to little purpoſe. Mere ignorance and inability are not ſubjects for ſerious animadverſion; and as time is faſt haſtening to moulder away theſe remains of rude times, there can be little excuſe for reviving the memory of that which can be read neither with pleaſure nor inſtruction. Yet, I am humbly of opinion, that we are making very ſlow progreſs in epitaph-writing. We can boaſt of a few, in this century, and but a few written by men of genius and underſtanding, who alike reſpect the memory of the dead and the good ſenſe of the living. Thoſe written by Pope are in every body's hands. That on lord Harcourt's ſon, appears to me to excel all the others. I know not whether it is not among the fineſt in our language. The happy manner in which he introduces the name cannot be enough admired:

How vain is reaſon, eloquence how weak!
If Pope muſt tell what Harcourt cannot ſpeak.

An eminent critic juſtly obſerves, that 'this epitaph is principally remarkable for the artful introduction of the name, which is inſerted with a peculiar felicity, to which chance muſt concur with genius, which no man can hope to attain twice, and which cannot be copied but with ſervile imitation.' I am not ſo much in love with what Pope intended for ſir Iſaac Newton:

Nature, and Nature's laws lay hid in night;
God ſaid, *let Newton be!* and all was light.

It is a vile, whimſical conceit, a mere play upon words. *All* was not light when ſir Iſaac flouriſhed. *All* is not light now, nor probably ever will be.

It is curious to obſerve, that before the reformation, moſt of thoſe perſons, who were honoured with monumental inſcriptions, were *miſerable ſinners.* Every inſcription, or almoſt every one, now legible, commences with the affecting ſupplication, *Orate pro anima miſerimi peccatoris*, &c. 'Pray for the ſoul of that moſt miſerable ſinner, &c.' then followed the name or names. But ſince that period, our churchyards have aſſumed a more pleaſing appearance, being filled with nothing but eminent examples of piety, benevolence, charity, conjugal fidelity, paternal affection, and filial duty. And here may be ſaid to commence the era of human vanity, and extravagant panegyric. How muſt it exalt us in the opinion of a credulous foreigner, who finds that every man, woman, and child, noticed at all, are noticed only for the practice of eminent virtues! But alas! how mortifying is it to our vanity to find, at the ſame time, that ſo many thouſands walk over theſe repoſitories of departed worth, and read their characters with cool indifference, as perſons they never heard of before, and now hear of without any intereſt.

But with all its faults and imperfections, ever ſacred be that attention to the deceaſed, which has in all ages prompted men to give praiſe to virtue, and a public teſtimonial to religious principles. Let us improve upon the general inclination. Let an epitaph be not merely a record of the virtues of the deceaſed, provided he really poſſeſſed them, but let it be combined with ſome ſtriking precept or thought, which may uſefully arreſt the attention of the paſſenger. It is not neceſſary this ſhould be in verſe, although general cuſtom gives a ſanction, becauſe general cuſtom cannot give genius. Theſe lines, 'Afflictions ſore long time I bore, &c.' which meet the eye in every churchyard, would be wretched if they were

new

few, and are diſguſting by their being common. There is a ſerious and pleaſing ſimplicity in the following lines, on an infant in Wiſbeach churchyard:

Beneath a ſleeping infant lies,
To earth her body's lent;
More glorious ſhe'll hereafter riſe,
Tho' not more innocent.
And when the Archangel's trump ſhall blow,
And ſouls with bodies join,
Millions ſhall wiſh their life below
Had been as ſhort as thine.

I do not ſpeak of the poetry of the firſt ſtanza. The thought in the ſecond is excellent, and well expreſſed.

Poetry has no doubt been ſelected as affording that terſeneſs of ſentiment, and that perſuaſive tone which is ſeldom found in proſe; it is preferable too for the memory, but it is objectionable as leading too much into far-fetched conceits and extravagance. Many a poet has added a *virtue*, where he wanted a rhyme. Much the ſame is the caſe with Latin epitaphs: the pompous majeſty of that language, and the almoſt conſtant uſe of ſuperlatives, exalt frail mortals wonderfully, and would almoſt perſuade us that the preſent is the ſtate of perfection, inſtead of probation.

Ignorance of the meaning of common expreſſions, it is no wonder to find in our churchyards. I obſerved in Bermondſey churchyard, a curious circumſtance of this kind, on a ſtone. After mentioning the name, &c. of the deceaſed, are the following lines; 'Here lyeth the fond hopes of a tender mother, and the *blaſted* expectations of an indulgent father.' The word *blaſted* appearing too harſh, I ſuppoſe from being uſed in an awkward ſenſe in that part of the town, the ſame lines occur on a neighbouring tombſtone, with the word *bleſſed* inſtead of *blaſted*. Which is moſt proper, my readers are at liberty to determine.—In the ſame place, is an inſcription, which ſhews what an opinion we have of our own conſequence with poſterity:

'Here lies the remains of Matthew, Eliſabeth Mary, and Eliſabeth, ſon and daughters of Matthew and Sarah Thomſon of Snowes-fields.

Fright and *robbery* was full ſore
Pain and affliction ſevere I bore.
Wait thou on God and keep his way
He ſhall preſerve thee then.
The earth to rule and thou ſhall ſee
Deſtroyed theſe wicked *Jury Men.*

There being no date upon this ſtone, we are ſtrangely in the dark, and can only conjecture that here was a *robbery* and a fright, which generally accompanies robbery, and a trial in which the *jury* did not do their duty ſo as to pleaſe *I*, for one only of the deceaſed addreſſes poſterity, which is, I am afraid, deaf and blind to the meaning of it.

The frequent uſe of poetry to expreſs the concern of the ſurvivors, would almoſt tempt us to refuſe our aſſent to what the poet ſays,

Grief unaffected ſuits but ill with art
Or flowing numbers with a bleeding heart.

Yet certainly proſe is not defective in grace and majeſty, nor in conciſeneſs. There are few better proofs of this than in a few lines upon the tombſtone of a young lady, in Bicknor churchyard: 'Her life was an inſtructive proof, that piety is not always attended with moroſeneſs, nor cheerfulneſs with levity; that a firm faith may be entertained without prejudice; an aſſured hope without preſumption; a fervent charity without oſtentation; and that no Chriſtian virtue needs the ripening of years to make it perfect.'

One reads ſuch an epitaph as this with ſome ſatisfaction; the mind is filled with a ſublimely pious idea, and we pay a willing tribute to the memory of ſuch excellence. By the bye, the ſtyle is Johnſonian, although I have no reaſon otherwiſe to think that it came from the pen of that energetic writer. But it is time to conclude theſe remarks.

My

My notion of what an epitaph ſhould be has already, perhaps, been collected from what I have ſaid. It is not very material whether proſe or verſe be the vehicle; let there be a *juſt* proportion of panegyric, but nothing fulſome, and let the praiſe be ſo conveyed as to produce an inſtructive tendency on the mind of the reader. For this purpoſe, either a ſtriking apophthegm from the ſtorehouſe of pious reflection, or a text of ſcripture, ſuch as the reader will feel, and ſuch as he may eaſily carry away, would no doubt have a proper effect. Whatever the character of the deceaſed may have been, every thing ludicrous, every thing which, however well meant, has an air of burleſque, ought to be avoided. The effect on the dead is, to be ſure, nothing, but on the living, important. Had this been generally attended to, our churchyards would not have been viſited ſo often from mere curioſity, nor the hallowed ground trod with indifference, and often with mirth. Reflections ſuited to the awfulneſs of the object would have been excited, and a ſerious impreſſion, probably not tranſient, would have been made. I am, ſir, &c.

PERAMBULATOR.

PARTICULARS *of the* NEW SETTLEMENT *of* SIERRA LEONE, *on the Coaſt of* AFRICA.

[From 'An Authentic Account of the Expedition to Bulam,' &c. By J. Monteſiore.]

THE Sierra Leone Company is certainly at an enormous expence; but it has a great capital to ſupport it. All infant ſettlements are under ſome difficulties at the commencement, therefore, with perſeverance, I have not the leaſt doubt of the ultimate ſucceſs of this; but it may be conſidered in the light of a plantation of wood, where no advantage can be expected from it for ſome years. Mr. Dawes, the preſent governor, is a man in every reſpect calculated for his ſituation, and of great abilities; and he acts in the moſt upright manner for the benefit and intereſt of the company.

This colony is ſituated on the river Sierra Leone, ſo called by the Portugueſe from the number of lions that formerly infeſted the neighbouring mountains. The climate is in general unhealthy to Europeans, particularly in the mountainous parts; the open country is not ſo bad, as it is temperate in the afternoon from the breezes that generally blow from the ſea. The bay and entrance to the river abound with a great variety of fiſh, ſuch as gar fiſh, cavalloes, jew fiſh, ſoles, cat fiſh, ſharks, and mullets; and on the rocks are plenty of oyſters. The country about the colony produces rice, oranges, lemons, plantains, bananas, yams, caſſava, pine apples, and ſeveral ſorts of white plums. In the mountains are the palm and cocoa tree; indeed the country is over-grown with trees, ſo cloſe together, that it is one continued foreſt. In the mountains are a great number of wild animals, as tigers, wild boars, roe-bucks, monkies, and ſerpents; in the woods are doves, parrots, and parroquets. There are alſo deer, goats, and fowls.

The native inhabitants are not ſo black as thoſe of the neighbouring countries. The men in general are tall and well made; the women have very pleaſing features, but are ſhort and robuſt, owing to their being conſtantly employed in labour. They are a very quarrelſome, impetuous, and revengeful ſet of people, and on account of the leaſt trifle will raiſe a *palaver*, in order to extort, as a compromiſe, ſpirituous liquors, to the uſe of which they are much addicted. They will part with every thing they have,

have, nay, I am well informed, their chiefs often ſell their people to procure them. At every religious ceremony, marriage, or burial, and at their *palavers*, they drink to an exceſs, which generally creates quarrels, that ſeldom or ever terminate without ſome ſanguinary act. Inſtances have been known at their burial ceremonies, which continue a week, of their broaching an hogſhead of rum, and ſitting round it until it was finiſhed, hooting, ſinging their threnody, and beating the drum.

The men take upon themſelves the perils of war, together with the toils of hunting, ſhooting, and fiſhing. From the ſeveral European ſhips that frequent the coaſt for ſlaves, they procure guns, of which they are very fond, and uſe them with great dexterity. The women cultivate the land, make palm oil, ſpin cotton, and carry their produce to market. It is not uncommon to ſee a woman with two children in her arms, and a heavy load on her head, coming down from the mountains, while her huſband walks behind, without any incumbrance, except his gun, whiſtling and ſinging.

The clothing of the women conſiſts of a piece of cloth, generally blue or white, which is faſtened about their middle, and capable of being brought up round their ſhoulders. The children adorn their middle with a net made of glaſs beads. The men's dreſs differs but little from that of the women's; but they are very partial to European clothes, and appear proud and pleaſed when they are attired in them.

Their houſes, or huts, are low and thatched with ſtraw. Some are round and others oblong. Their furniture conſiſts of iron pots to boil their victuals, gourds to fetch palm wine, a few earthen diſhes, and a large pewter diſh to gather their cockles and oyſters in. Their bed is a mat, on which they ſleep without any covering. Their food is principally boiled rice, herbs, fruit, cockles, and oyſters, which they prefer to the greateſt rarities. They are very fond of dancing, and generally ſpend their evenings in that diverſion. Their muſic conſiſts of a drum, made of a hollow piece of wood.

As to their religion, they believe in a future ſtate, but do not ſeem to have any object of worſhip, except that they appear to pay ſome kind of reverence to the ſun and moon. They have many ſuperſtitious notions, and have a high opinion of their ſeveral charms, which they conſtantly carry in a bag about their necks.

They make very good matting, ſome of which is finer, and in every reſpect better, than any we have in Europe; the coarſer ſort ſerves them to ſleep on, the finer they barter with Europeans.

The Sierra Leone company have purchaſed ſome land on the Boulon ſhore, lying oppoſite this colony, and have a plantation of ſugar canes there. They employ at weekly wages a number of the natives, in order to cultivate this plantation; which, though in an infant ſtate, is in a very thriving condition. The country is flat, but the ſoil is rich, and produces great quantities of rice.

The king of Nambana, in whoſe territory the plantation is ſituated, a very reſpectable old man, has been here on a *palaver*. He is a great friend to the Engliſh, and takes great pains to affect their manners and maxims; but his people, like almoſt all Indians, are given to intemperance in drinking ſpirituous liquors. He has a ſon now in England, at Mr. Thornton's, member for Southwark, and chairman of the Sierra Leone company, for his education. It is to be hoped, on his return to his native country, his ideas, by being under the tuition of able maſters, and reſiding for ſome time in a civilized land, will induce him to inculcate into the minds of his countrymen and neighbours, ſome notions of an omnipotent Creator, and of humanity, and diſpoſſeſs them, in ſome meaſure, of that

that ſavage ferocity that characterizes them.

I will relate a recent inſtance of their cruelty, which happened not ſix leagues from this place. It ſhows, in the ſtrongeſt manner, to what a degree of barbarity the minds of men are carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, and that no length of time is ſufficient to allay their reſentment. A Daniſh ſhip, coming to this coaſt for ſlaves, was traded with, and treated very juſtly on its arrival; but in the night, the crew not being on their guard, the natives availed themſelves of the opportunity to ſeize the ſhip and cargo, and cruelly murdered every perſon on board. The excuſe they gave for acting ſo unwarrantably was, that about ſixteen years ago, a Dutch veſſel touched there to trade, and ſtole ſome of their people. And the ſeveral ſettlers about this coaſt rather encourage them to ſuch hoſtile acts, than the contrary, as ſome of them immediately purchaſed the ſhip and cargo.

I have endured many ſevere hardſhips ſince my firſt arrival at this part of the coaſt, occaſioned by my late fit of ſickneſs; yet had I enjoyed my health, I muſt have expected ſome difficulties in an infant colony. The thunder and lightning are ſo very dreadful, that I have not words to convey an idea of them; and the ground at preſent is covered with red ants, and other inſects. The ants have often taken poſſeſſion of a hut, and compelled the inhabitants to abandon it, otherwiſe they would have been in danger of their lives, they come in ſuch amazing droves.

Upward of two hundred of the ſettlers, with ſeveral of the natives, continue to clear the woods; they have each a weekly payment in money, beſide their allowance of proviſions. They are much better ſituated in many reſpects than our labouring people in England; as the company gives them every encouragement they can wiſh or deſire. It is impoſſible to conceive the cheerfulneſs with which they go to their daily labour at five o'clock in the morning, and continue till the afternoon, when each attends his domeſtic concerns, and cultivates his garden. In the evening they adjourn to ſome meeting, of which they have many, and ſing pſalms with the greateſt devotion until late at night. It is a pleaſing ſight on a Sunday to ſee them go to church, attired in their gayeſt apparel, with content and happineſs imprinted on their countenances.

A ſchool is eſtabliſhed here for the education of the children of the ſettlers, who are taught reading and writing. The ſeveral natives of the adjoining countries have begun to ſend their children to Sierra Leone for education; therefore it may be preſumed, that in the courſe of a few years, the inhabitants contiguous to this colony, will become uſeful members of ſociety. The Sierra Leone company have certainly great merit in reforming their black ſettlers, who before were a peſt to the community, and had not the leaſt idea of religion or morality, but are now ſo far reclaimed from their original degeneracy of manners, as to be equal at leaſt to the populace of moſt civilized nations.

It is intended, immediately after a proper plot of land has been cleared, to remove the town, and rebuild it on a more uniform ſcale, a ſurvey having lately been taken for that purpoſe. At preſent the huts, or houſes, are chiefly made of wicker-work and mud, and the roofs are thatched with graſs, which harbours great quantities of rats and lizards; but ſome of the moſt ingenious of the ſettlers have erected themſelves very comfortable dwellings of wood.

The company, at the firſt eſtabliſhment of the colony, ſent out ſeveral large framed houſes for the governor and principal ſervants, one of which they uſe for the church and ſchool. Two framed hoſpitals, that have lately come from England, have been converted

verted into apartments for the chief clerks; the ſettlers of colour having become inured to the climate ſo as to have no occaſion for them. A good brick houſe has been built near the landing place for the ſtorekeeper, at which a ware room of dry goods is kept, in order to ſupply the ſettlers with European commodities, which are retailed out at a very moderate price. Alſo a brick warehouſe is begun to be erected, which, when finiſhed, will be capable of containing the cargoes of ſeveral ſhips.

Juſtice is adminiſtered here with the utmoſt impartiality, and no crime is committed with impunity: on the contrary, every tranſgreſſion is puniſhed, either by whipping or impriſonment. Nay, if the act be of a heinous nature, the culprit is, by the firſt opportunity, ſent to England to be treated according to his deſerts. The laſt ſentence has lately been paſſed on one of the ſettlers, who, after a fair and candid trial, was convicted on the cleareſt evidence of having ſold a male ſlave to a trade ſhip; a crime which moſt certainly will be deemed here of the blackeſt dye; ſince the firſt inſtitution of the Sierra Leone company was formed, more with a view to aboliſh the ſlave trade, than for any great gain or advantage the company expected to receive from the ſettlement.

THOUGHTS *on the* PROFESSION *of a* PEDLAR.

[From Mr. Heron's 'Journey through the Weſtern Counties of Scotland.']

IF I may be allowed to aſſume, for a moment, the cloak or hood at leaſt of a commercial philoſopher,—I am induced to obſerve, that chapmen or pedlars, are the great civilizers of countries and nations. We learn from Ceſar and other Roman writers, that the travelling merchants who frequented Gaul and other barbarous countries, either newly conquered by the Roman arms, or bordering on the Roman conqueſts, were ever the firſt to make the inhabitants of thoſe countries familiarly acquainted with the Roman mode of life, and to inſpire them with an inclination to follow Roman faſhions, and to enjoy Roman conveniencies. In North America, travelling merchants from the ſettlements have done and continue to do much more toward civilizing the Indian natives, than all the Miſſionaries, Papiſt, or Proteſtant, who have ever been ſent among them. There is reaſon to expect, that much may be equally done for the civilization of the natives of New Holland, by chapmen travelling, with ſuitable wares, from our new-formed ſettlements in Botany Bay.

Nothing can be more natural, than that theſe things ſhould ſo happen. A rude people will hardly go in ſearch of commodities of which they know not the names, the nature, or the value, and which they have little, if any, money to purchaſe. Yet, when ſuch commodities are brought among them, expoſed to their view, and recommended as faſhionable or uſeful; they ſeldom fail to take a fancy for them, and will often give in exchange any thing, of however eſſential utility, that they already poſſeſs. They learn to labour, that they may have means with which to purchaſe thoſe foreign commodities.—They learn to diſdain the uſe of thoſe coarſe clothes, or rude utenſils with which they were before content. And with the new conveniences, they inſenſibly adopt that improved ſyſtem of manners to which ſuch conveniencies properly correſpond. In the ſtage of the progreſs of ſociety in which this change is begun, no ſuch alteration poſſibly could take place, without the intervention of chapmen or pedlars.

It is farther to be obſerved, for the credit of this moſt uſeful claſs of men, that they commonly contribute, by their perſonal manners no leſs than by

the ſale of their wares, to the refinement of the people among whom they travel. Their dealings form them to great quickneſs of wit, and acuteneſs of judgment. Having conſtant occaſion to recommend themſelves and their goods, they acquire habits of the moſt obliging attention and the moſt inſinuating addreſs. As, in their peregrinations, they have opportunity of contemplating the manners of various men and various cities; they become eminently ſkilled in the knowledge of the world As they wander, each alone, through thinly inhabited diſtricts, they form habits of reflection and of ſublime contemplation. With all theſe qualifications, no wonder that they ſhould often be, in remote parts of the country, the beſt mirrors of faſhion, and cenſors of manners; and ſhould contribute much to poliſh the roughneſs, and ſoften the ruſticity of our peaſantry. It is not more than twenty or thirty years, ſince a young man going from any part of Scotland to England, on purpoſe to carry the pack, was conſidered as going to lead the life, and to acquire the fortune of a gentleman. When, after twenty years abſence in that honourable line of employment, he returned with his acquiſitions to his native country, he was regarded as a gentleman to all intents and purpoſes. When he had purchaſed a little eſtate, he commonly made improvements, and ſet up in a ſtyle of living, by which the taſte of the whole country-ſide was mightily corrected and refined. I believe in my conſcience, that at leaſt a fifth part of our ſecond-rate gentry, whoſe gentility is not of ancient; military origin, may trace it to the uſeful induſtry of this deſerved claſs of citizens.

But, to trace ſomewhat farther, the progreſs of that refinement which is begun through the miniſtration of itinerant merchants: When curioſity, taſte, induſtry, and fancy have, by their endeavours, been rouſed; the purchaſers of their commodities learn next to meet them at fairs. By aſſembling upon theſe occaſions, they become more ſocial in their tempers, they are taught to vie with one another in their manners and appearance, they gain ſome knowledge of traffic, and become acquainted with more of the conveniencies of life. The time of the fair becomes a period to which their hopes look forward, and an era from which every one dates ſome increaſe or other of his perſonal importance. Every one returns home from it, too, with reſolutions to earn money or to prepare commodities which may enable him to make greater purchaſes by the return of next fair.

The ſpirit of induſtry and of ſocial intercourſe which is by theſe means ſtirred up, continues to operate, till yet more frequent meetings for the purpoſes of traffic become requiſite. Markets are next eſtabliſhed. The chapmen become ſhopkeepers. And the improvement of the country, if not impeded by the operation of oppoſite cauſes, goes rapidly on.

This is no fanciful or ludicrous deduction. The progreſs of induſtry and of luxury advances by theſe very ſteps. Chapmen are undeniably of all that conſequence in ſociety which I have aſcribed to them. I know not if the ſociety for propagating Chriſtian Knowledge in the Highlands and Iſlands of Scotland had not better employ chapmen, inſtead of preaching miſſionaries, or unite the two characters of the chapman and the preaching miſſionary in the ſame perſon.

OBSERVATIONS *on the Keeping of* COWS.

[From Mr. Foot's 'Survey of the County of Middlesex.']

THE number of cows kept by the London cow-keepers in the county of Middlesex, amounts to nearly 7,200; and in the counties of Kent and Surry to 1,300. I have taken great pains to ascertain these numbers with as much precision as the nature of the subject is capable of; and, having collected my information from the following places, I have great confidence in the account being accurate.

MIDDLESEX.		
Tothil-Fields	}	205
Knightsbridge		
Edgware-Road		550
Paddington	}	3,950
Tottenham-Court-Road		
Battle-Bridge		
Gray's-Inn-Lane		
Bagnigge-Wells		
Islington		
Hoxton		150
Ratcliff		205
Mile-End		406
Limehouse		180
Poplar		70
Bethnal-Green		200
Hackney		600
Bromley		160
Bow		100
Shoreditch	}	200
Kingsland		
Odd Cows		124
		7,200
KENT.		
Deptford	}	681
Rotherhithe		
Greenland-Dock		
New-Cross		
Bermondsey		
SURRY.		
Lambeth	}	619
South Lambeth		
Kennington-Bridge		
Cold-Harbour		
Peckham		
Peckham Rye		
Newington		
Camberwell		
		1,300

The cows kept for the purpose of furnishing the metropolis with milk, are, in general, bred in Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Staffordshire. The London dealers buy them of the country breeders when they are three years old, and in calf. The prices given for them are from eight guineas to fourteen pounds a cow. The different fairs and markets, which are held at Barnet, Islington, and other places around the metropolis, furnish the London cow-keepers with the means of keeping up their several stocks. Many cows likewise are bought in Yorkshire in small lots, from ten to twenty, by private commission, and forwarded to the cow-keepers in and about London.

During the night the cows are confined in pens or stalls. About three o'clock in the morning, each cow has a half bushel basket of grains. From four o'clock to half past six, they are milked by the milk-dealers, who contract with the cow-keepers for the milk of a certain number of cows, at the price of fourteen or fifteen-pence for eight quarts. When the milking is finished, a bushel basket of turnips is given to each cow; and very soon afterward they have an allotment, in the proportion of one truss to ten cows, of the softest meadow-hay of the first cut that can be procured. These several feedings are generally made before eight o'clock in the morning, at which time the cows are released from their stalls, and turned out into the cow-yard. About twelve o'clock, they are again confined to their different stalls, and served with the same quantity of grains as they had in the morning. About half past one in the afternoon the milking commences in the manner as before described, and continues till near three, when the cows are again served with the same quantity of turnips, and, about an hour afterward, with the same distribution of hay as before described.

this plain, after paſſing ſome more ridges, we proceed along the ſhore to the provinces of Balagna and Nebbio, both very rich, particularly the former, which may be called the garden of Corſica, being highly favoured by nature, and having had alſo very ſuperior advantages of cultivation. Near St. Fiorenzo, are ſome low marſhy grounds, which render that town very unhealthy.

The interior parts of the iſland are, in general, mountainous, but interſperſed with fruitful vallies. There are large tracts of uninhabited land, moſtly covered with woods, to ſome parts of which the peaſants reſort, in ſummer, to feed their cattle, and to gather cheſnuts, making little temporary ſheds for ſhelter. There is hardly ſuch a thing as a detached farm-houſe in the iſland; for the Corſican farmers live in little villages, which they call *paeſes*—countries. That a *village* ſhould be called a *country* muſt appear odd to an Engliſhman; and, accordingly, when Mr. Boſwell was in Corſica, and was told that he ſhould travel a great many miles, 'ſenza veder *un paeſe* – without ſeeing *a country*,' he could not imagine what was meant. Theſe villages are frequently built on the very ſummits of the mountains, and on craggy cliffs of ſuch a ſtupendous height, that the houſes can hardly be diſtinguiſhed during the day; but, at night, when the ſhepherds kindle their fires, the reflection of ſuch a variety of lights makes theſe aërial villages have a very picturesque and pleaſing appearance.

Corſica is extremely well watered. Its principal lakes are thoſe of Ino and Crena, about two miles from each other, both of conſiderable extent, and ſituated on Mount Gradaccio, or Monte Rotondo. This mountain is the loftieſt in the iſland, and is, indeed, of an amazing height. Its ſummit affords a very extenſive view of all Corſica and Sardinia, with diſtant proſpects of Italy and France, while the Mediterranean, and many of its little iſles, appear under the eye. But the upper part of the mountain, whence this view is taken, is difficult to aſcend, it being almoſt a perpendicular rock; ſo that a man muſt climb two miles by the aſſiſtance of his hands and knees; and, for the greateſt part of the year, this immenſe mountain is covered with ſnow.—Near Mariana, is a conſiderable lake, called Chiurlina, or Biguglia, which communicates with the ſea. Near Aleria, is another, called Il Stagno di Diana, which likewiſe communicates with the ſea; and it is remarkable that, in ſummer, when the heat of the ſun has exhaled part of the water, and the reſt of it is abſorbed by the ſandy bottom, there remains a kind of natural ſalt, which the Corſicans find very good.

Among the rivers of Corſica, are the Golo, which is large and beautiful: it iſſues from lake Ino, and, after a courſe of ſeventy miles, enters the Tuſcan Sea, near Mariana. The Tavignano, another conſiderable river, has its ſource in lake Crena, and likewiſe enters the Tuſcan Sea, near Aleria. The Reſtonica, though a ſmall river, is famous on account of its particular qualities: its water is as clear as cryſtal, and is ſaid to be of a mineral nature, and very wholeſome: it has the virtue of whitening every thing, ſo that the ſtones in its channel reſemble chalk: it makes iron look almoſt like ſilver, and prevents its ruſting; on which account the Corſicans frequently dip in it the barrels and locks of their fire-arms. There are many other rivers in the iſland, as the Prunella, Fiumorbo, Gravonne, Valinco, Talavo, and Liamone, and innumerable rivulets, which enrich the country; but none of the rivers are navigable; for their currents are extremely rapid, and, after great rains, the torrents from the mountains often bring down large fragments of rocks, which would daſh any veſſel to pieces. There are alſo many beneficial mineral ſprings in the iſland, both hot and cold. The lakes and

rivers are said to produce no other fish than trouts and eels: these are found in great plenty, are very fat, and of an uncommon size. But the sea, on the coasts, has great variety of the best kinds of fish, particularly sturgeons, and sardines, or pilchards, which are of an exquisite taste. They have likewise beds of remarkably large oysters.

Corsica has as great a variety of animals as most countries. The horses are, in general, of a very small breed: they are, however, remarkably lively and very hardy, somewhat of the nature of the Welsh ponies, or of the little horses called shelties, which are found in Shetland: but there are some of a very good size. The asses and mules are also small, but very strong, and wonderfully agile in climbing the steep rocky mountains. The black cattle are larger, in proportion, than the horses; but the greatest part of the island is not very proper pasture for them; so that, in general, they do not give much milk, and their beef is lean and tough. Indeed, there is not much occasion for milk in this island, as they make no butter, oil supplying its place, as in Italy, and most warm countries. In some pieves, however, they make a good deal of cheese.

Vast numbers of goats browse upon the wild hills. Sheep are also very plentiful, and have fine feeding: the mutton, in course, is sweet and juicy, and compensates for the badness of the beef. These sheep are generally black, or of a dusky colour; a white sheep being here and there to be met with in a flock, as black sheep are among ours. Their wool is coarse and hairy, which is owing, perhaps, as much to the nature of the pasture, as to the breed. It is very common here for sheep to have more horns than two: many of them have six.

The forests abound in deer; and here is a curious animal, called a muffoli, which resembles a stag, but has horns like a ram, and a skin uncommonly hard: it is very wild, and lives on the highest mountains: it will jump from rock to rock, at the distance of many feet; and, if hard chased to the extremity of a cliff, whence it can reach no other, it will throw itself over, and, with surprising agility, pitch upon its horns, without receiving any hurt. Yet when these animals are taken young, they are easily tamed. The wild boar is found here in great plenty. Indeed, their swine, which are very numerous, have all a mixture of the wild breed, and being fed on chestnuts, are very agreeable food. The Corsicans are very fond of hunting the wild boar, for which they have a breed of dogs particularly excellent. They have smooth hair, and are something between a mastiff and a strong shepherd's dog. They are large, and exceedingly fierce; but when once they have taken an attachment, they are very faithful to their master, watch him night and day, and are undaunted in his defence. Hares are numerous in the island, but they have no rabbits. They have no wolves, nor any of the larger wild beasts, unless foxes can be reckoned such: these, indeed, are exceedingly large and ravenous; and, it is said, they not only destroy sheep, but have been known to devour even foals.

There is a variety of birds in Corsica; the eagle, vulture, woodpigeon, turtle, thrush, blackbird, and many of the smaller kinds; and plenty of game, as partridges, woodcocks, snipes, and water-fowl in the lakes. The thrushes and blackbirds must here be reckoned part of the game; for they are very numerous, and there being a great quantity of the arbutus fruit in the island, they are very fat, and are esteemed a great delicacy.

There is no poisonous animal in this island; for although there are some scorpions, their bite conveys no venom. What approaches the nearest here to a poisonous animal, is a spider of an extraordinary size: its bite will irritate and inflame to a great degree,

degree, and the ſwelling it occaſions is very alarming to a perſon unacquainted with it; but it ſoon goes off, and no bad conſequences enſue. Th s ſpider has been miſtaken by ſome for the tarantula of Naples.

There are extenſive foreſts in different places, and almoſt every kind of fore.t tree. Indeed, there is timber ſufficient to maintain a very large fleet; and the timber here is much harder than might be expected in ſuch a ſouthern latitude. The ilex, or evergreen oak, is very common, and gives the country a cheerful look even in the depth of winter. The lemon, orange, fig, and almond trees are alſo numerous; but here are few walnut-trees; and the apple, pear, and cherry are not remarkably good. The pomegranate is here in great perfection, with the Indian fig and aloe, which laſt is ſaid to flower here as well as in the Eaſt. The mulberry grows well here, and is leſs ſubject to blights and thunder ſtorms than in Italy and in the ſouth of France. Laurel and box-trees are likewiſe common; and the latter grow ſo large that they may be reckoned among the timber. The mountains are covered with the arbutus, or ſtrawberry tree, which gives a rich glowing appearance as far as the eye can reach.

The different kinds of grain in Corſica are wheat, barley, rye, and millet; but there are no oats. The horſes and mules are fed with barley. The millet is excellent, and when mixed with rye, makes a wholeſome bread, of which the peaſants are very fond. Cheſtnuts may be reckoned here a ſort of grain, for they anſwer the ſame purpoſes. The Corſicans eat them, when roaſted, by way of bread: they even grind them into flour, of which they make very good cakes.

A vaſt quantity of honey is produced in Corſica, which has been remarkable, from the earlieſt times, for its ſwarms of bees. Indeed, the hills are all covered with wild thyme and other fragrant herbs. Yet its honey has always been reckoned bitter, on account (as both Diodorus * and Pliny † have obſerved) of the box-wood and yew. This makes Virgil's Lycidas wiſh

Sic tua Cyrneas fugiant examina taxos.
Ecl. ix. 30.

So may thy bees refuſe
The baleful juices of Cyrnean yews.
WARTON.

In Corſica are many mines of lead, iron, copper, and ſilver. The iron is remarkably good, having a roughneſs nearly equal to that of the prepared iron of Spain. There are alſo mines of alum and ſaltpetre. The iſland, moreover, produces an excellent kind of granite, porphyry, a great variety of jaſper, and beautiful rock-cryſtal; and from the ſea they fiſh up great quantities of coral.

To this general account of the iſland, we ſhall add ſome beautiful lines, from a poem by Mrs. Barbauld, in which ſhe has enumerated, with equal accuracy, elegance, and taſte, whatever is ſtriking either in the face of the country or in its productions:

Cyrnus ‡, hail!
Hail to thy rocky, deep-indented ſhores,
And pointed cliffs, which bear the chafing deep
Inceſſant foaming round their ſhaggy ſides.
Hail to thy winding bays, thy ſhelt'ring ports
And ample harbours, which inviting ſtretch
Their hoſpitable arms to every ſail:
Thy numerous ſtreams, that burſting from the cliffs,
Down the ſteep-channel'd rock impetuous pour
With grateful murmur: on the fearful edge
Of the rude precipice, thy hamlets brown
And ſtraw roof'd cots, which from the level vale
Scarce ſeen, among the craggy hanging cliffs
Seem like an eagle's neſt aerial built:

* Lib. v. ch. 295. † Lib. xvi. ch. 16.
‡ The name by which, as before obſerved, Corſica was known to the Greeks.

Thy ſwelling mountains, brown with ſolemn ſhade
Of various trees, that wave their giant arms
O'er the rough ſons of Freedom; lofty pines,
And hardy fir, and ilex ever green,
And ſpreading cheſtnut, with each humbler plant,
And ſhrub of fragrant leaf, that clothes their ſides
With living verdue; whence the cluſt'ring bee
Extracts her golden dews: the ſhining box,
And ſweet-leav'd myrtle, aromatic thyme,
The prickly juniper, and the green leaf
Which feeds the ſpinning worm; while glowing bright
Beneath the various foliage, wildly ſpreads
The arbutus, and rears his ſcarlet fruit
Luxuriant, mantling o'er the craggy ſteeps;
And thy own native laurel crowns the ſcene.
Hail to thy ſavage foreſts, awful, deep:
Thy tangled thickets, and thy crowded woods,
The haunt of herds untam'd, which ſullen bound
From rock to rock with fierce unſocial air,
And wilder gaze, as conſcious of the power
That loves to reign amid the lonely ſcenes
Of unbroke nature: precipices huge,
And tumbling torrents; trackleſs deſarts, plains
Fenc'd in with guardian rocks, whoſe quarries teem
With ſhining ſteel, that to the cultur'd fields
And ſunny hills which wave with bearded grain
Defends their homely produce.

The towns of Corſica are numerous; but our limits will permit us only to take notice of two or three of the principal.

Baſtia has long been reckoned the capital of Corſica; for it was here that the Genoeſe held the ſeat of their ſovereign power, and it is ſtill the largeſt town in the iſland. It is ſeated on the eaſt ſide, in longitude 9. 30 E. and 42. 36. N. It has a noble appearance from the ſea, being built on the declivity of a hill; but though there are ſome pretty good ſtructures, the houſes, in general, are ill-built, and the ſtreets narrow and ſteep. It has a caſtle, which commands the town and harbour. The cathedral has nothing remarkable, but the church of St. John is not an inelegant building. Ships of war cannot enter the port. Baſtia ſurrendered to the Britiſh and Corſicans, on the 22d of May 1794.

Corte, which is ſituated in the centre of the iſland, is properly the capital. Here the aſſembly of the general conſult met, on the 8th of June 1794, to deliberate on the union of the iſland with the crown of Great Britain; and it is fixed as the ſeat of the viceroy and parliament of Corſica, according to the new conſtitution. It is ſituated partly at the foot, and partly on the declivity of a rock, in a plain ſurrounded by mountains of a prodigious height, and at the confluence of the rivers Tavignano and Reſtonica. Upon the point of a rock, which riſes above the reſt, at the back of the town, is the caſtle, which has only one winding paſſage to climb up to it, where but two perſons can go abreaſt. In this town is a univerſity.

Ajaccio, on the weſt ſide of the iſland, is the handſomeſt town. It has many good ſtreets and beautiful walks, with a citadel, and a palace in which the Genoeſe governor uſed to reſide. The inhabitants are the moſt genteel people in the iſland; and here are the remains of a colony of Greeks, which formed a ſettlement in 1677. It has a wide, ſafe and commodious harbour, with a good mole.

Calvi, which is the laſt place that held out againſt the Britiſh and Corſicans, is alſo ſituated on the weſt ſide of the iſland. It has a large and excellent harbour, but as a town has nothing remarkable.

SELECT PASSAGES FROM SHAKSPEARE.

NUMBER XXIV.

KING HENRY IV, PART I.

Peace after Civil War.

King Henry.

So ſhaken as we are, ſo wan with care,
Find we a time for frighted Peace to pant,
And breathe ſhort-winded accents of new broils
To be commenced in ſtronds afar remote.
No more the thirſty entrance of this ſoil
Shall daub her lips with her own children's blood;
No more ſhall trenching War channel her fields,
Nor bruiſe her flow'rets with the armed hoofs
Of hoſtile paces. Thoſe oppoſed eyes,
Which (like the meteors of a troubled heaven,
All of one nature, of one ſubſtance bred)
Did lately meet in the inteſtine ſhock
And furious cloſe of civil butchery,
Shall now, in mutual, well-beſeeming ranks,
March all one way; and be no more oppoſed
Againſt acquaintance, kindred, and allies:
The edge of war, like an ill-ſheathed knife,
No more ſhall cut his maſter. Therefore, friends,
As far as to the ſepulchre of Chriſt,
(Whoſe ſoldier now, under whoſe bleſſed croſs
We are impreſſed and engaged to fight)
Forthwith a power of Engliſh ſhall we levy, &c.

The play opens with the king's declaring his intention to undertake the cruſade as ſoon as peace will allow him to do it; and the ſenſe of the four firſt lines ſeems to be this: 'Let us ſoften Peace to reſt awhile without diſturbance, that ſhe may recover breath to propoſe new wars.' This introduces a horrid deſcription of the former ſtate of civil war, which forms a fine contraſt to the peace which the kingdom now happily enjoyed.

King Henry's Compariſon between Percy and the Prince of Wales.

Weſtmorland. In faith, it is a conqueſt for a prince to boaſt of.

King Henry. Yea, there thou mak'ſt me ſad, and mak'ſt me ſin,
In envy that my lord Northumberland
Should be the father of ſo bleſt a ſon:
A ſon, who is the theme of honour's tongue;
Amongſt a grove, the very ſtraighteſt plant:
Who is ſweet Fortune's minion and her pride:
Whilſt I, by looking on the praiſe of him,
See riot and diſhonour ſtain the brow
Of my young Henry. O, that it could be prov'd,
That ſome night-tripping fairy had exchang'd
In cradle-clothes our children where they lay,
And call'd mine Percy—his Plantagenet!
Then would I have his Harry, and he mine.
But let him from my thoughts.

The peculiar dexterity with which Shakſpeare unfolds the characters, and prepares the events of this play, merits particular attention. There ſeems, indeed, to be nothing more difficult in the whole compaſs of the dramatic art, than to open to the ſpectator the previous incidents that were productive of the preſent circumſtances, and the characters of the perſons from whoſe conduct, in ſuch circumſtances, the ſubſequent events were to flow. An intelligent ſpectator will receive great pleaſure from obſerving every action naturally ariſing out of the ſentiments and manners of the perſons repreſented. Happier is the poet, the perplexities of whoſe fable are unfolded by the natural operation of the diſpoſitions of the perſons who compoſe it, than even he, to whom it is permitted to call a deity to his aſſiſtance. It has been already obſerved, that the play opens by the king's declaring his intention to undertake the cruſade. Weſtmorland then informs him of the defeat of Mortimer by Owen Glendower; and the king relates to him Percy's victory at Holmedon, which naturally leads

leads to the fine panegyric above of that young hero. Flying, in the laſt line, from the diſtreſſing idea of his ſon, the king mentions Percy's refuſal of his priſoners:

What think you, Coz,
Of this young Percy's pride? The priſoners,
Which he in this adventure hath ſurpris'd,
To his own uſe he keeps; and ſends me word,
I ſhall have none but Mordake earl of Fife.

Weſtmorland attributes this refuſal to the malevolent ſuggeſtions of Worceſter:

This is his uncle's teaching, this is Worceſter,
Malevolent to you in all aſpects,
Which makes him prune himſelf, and briſtle up
The creſt of youth againſt your dignity.

Thus at once are preſented to the ſpectator, the condition of the ſtate, the temper of the times, and the characters of the perſons whence the catastrophe is to ariſe.

Palliating Phraſes.

Sir John Falſtaff. Marry, then, ſweet wag, when thou art king, let not us, that are ſquires of the night's body, be called thieves of the day's beauty; let us be Diana's foreſters, gentlemen of the ſhade, minions of the moon; and let men ſay, we be men of good government; being governed, as the ſea is, by our noble and chaſte miſtreſs the moon, under whoſe countenance we—ſteal.

The method that men take to diſguiſe the nature of their vices, by palliating phraſes, is productive of dangerous conſequences in life. It ſerves not only to blunt the edge of remorſe in ourſelves, but helps to induce a milder cenſure in others, upon the moſt atrocious crimes.—Thus, a murderer and a plunderer, like Alexander the Great, and a madman, like Charles the twelfth of Sweden, are *heroes*; a man, who enters into foreign ſervice, and fights for hire, without any regard to the juſtice of the cauſe in which he fights, is *a ſoldier of fortune*; a pennyleſs adventurer, who carries off a rich heireſs, is merely *a fortune-hunter*; a profligate fellow, who debauches every woman in his power (the wife, the ſiſter, perhaps, of his moſt intimate friend) is a *man of gallantry*; and ſhould he fight in a duel, and kill, the perſon he has thus injured, he is *a man of honour*. A ſharper is *un chevalier d' induſtrie*; an atheiſt *a free-thinker*; and there are countries, perhaps, where bribery and corruption are nothing more than *intereſt* and *influence*.—The paſſage here quoted affords a ſtriking ſpecimen of this ſort of palliating and deceitful phraſeology.

The Prince's Soliloquy.

I know you all, and will a while uphold
The unyok'd humour of your idleneſs:
Yet herein will I imitate the ſun,
Who doth permit the baſe contagious clouds
To ſmother up his beauty from the world,
That, when he pleaſe again to be himſelf,
Being wanted, he may be more wonder'd at,
By breaking through the foul and ugly miſts
Of vapours, that did ſeem to ſtrangle him.
If all the year were playing holydays,
To ſport would be as tedious as to work;
But, when they ſeldom come, they wiſh'd-for come,
And nothing pleaſeth but rare accidents.
So, when this looſe behaviour I throw off,
And pay the debt I never promiſed,
By how much better than my word I am,
By ſo much ſhall I falſify men's hopes;
And, like bright metal on a ſullen ground,
My reformation, glittering o'er my fault,
Shall ſhew more goodly, and attract more eyes,
Than that which hath no foil to ſet it off.
I'll ſo offend, to make offence a ſkill;
Redeeming time, when men think leaſt I will.

This ſpeech is very artfully introduced to keep the prince from appearing vile in the opinion of the audience: it prepares them for his future reformation; and, what is yet more valuable, exhibits a natural picture of a great mind offering excuſes

to itſelf, and palliating thoſe follies which it can neither juſtify nor forſake. The diſpoſition of the hero is made to pierce through the idle frolics of the boy, throughout the whole play; for his reformation is not effected in the laſt ſcene of the laſt act, as is uſual in our comedies, but is prepared from the very beginning of the play.

Deſcription of a finical Courtier.

Hotſpur. My liege, I did deny no priſoners.
But, I remember, when the fight was done,
When I was dry with rage and extreme toil,
Breathleſs and faint, leaning upon my ſword,
Came there a certain lord, neat, and trimly dreſt,
Freſh as a bridegroom; and his chin, new-reap'd,
Shew'd like a ſtubble land at harveſt-home:
He was perfumed like a milliner;
And 'twixt his finger and his thumb he held
A pouncet-box *, which ever and anon
He gave his noſe, and took't away again;
Who, therewith angry, when it next came there,
Took it in ſnuff †: and ſtill he ſmil'd and talk'd;
And, as the ſoldiers bore dead bodies by,
He call'd them untaught knaves, unmannerly;
To bring a ſlovenly unhandſome corſe
Betwixt the wind and his nobility.
With many holiday and lady terms
He queſtion'd me; among the reſt, demanded
My priſoners, in your majeſty's behalf.
I then, all ſmarting, with my wounds being cold,
To be ſo peſter'd with a popinjay [*parrot*],
Out of my grief and my impatience,
Anſwer'd negligently, I know not what,
He ſhould, or he ſhould not; for he made me mad,
To ſee him ſhine ſo briſk, and ſmell ſo ſweet,
And talk ſo like a waiting-gentlewoman,
Of guns, and drums, and wounds (God ſave the mark)
And telling me the ſovereign'ſt thing on earth
Was parmacity, for an inward bruiſe;
And that it was great pity, ſo it was,
That villanous ſaltpetre ſhould be digg'd
Out of the bowels of the harmleſs earth,
Which many a good tall fellow had deſtroy'd
So cowardly; and, but for theſe vile guns,
He would himſelf have been a ſoldier.
This bald unjointed chat of his, my lord,
I anſwer'd indirectly, as I ſaid;
And, I beſeech you, let not his report
Come current for an accuſation
Betwixt my love and your high majeſty.

The ſtern authority which the king aſſumes, on Hotſpur's diſobedience to his commands, could not fail to inflame an ardent young hero, flushed with recent victory, and elate with the conſciouſneſs of having ſo well defended a crown, which his father and uncle had in a manner conferred. Nothing can be more natural than that, in ſuch a temper, he ſhould recur to the obligations the king had received from his family. Thus, while he ſeems venting his ſpleen, he explains to the ſpectator what is paſt, and opens the ſource of the future rebellion; and by connecting former tranſactions with the preſent paſſions and events, he creates in the reader an intereſt and a ſympathy, which a cold narration, or a pompous declamation, could not have affected. As the author deſigned Percy ſhould be an intereſting character, his diſobedience to the king, in regard to the priſoners, is mitigated by his pleading the unfitneſs of the perſon (the finical courtier above deſcribed) and the unſeaſonableneſs of the time to urge him on the ſubject. Thus has the poet diveſted the rebel of the hateful crime of premeditated revolt and deep-laid treachery. He is hurried by an impetuoſity of ſoul out of the ſphere of obedience, and, like a

* A ſmall box, then in faſhion for muſk and other perfumes; the lid of which being cut with open work, gave it its name; from *poinſoner*, to prick, pierce, or engrave.

† *Snuff* is equivocably uſed for anger, and a powder taken up the noſe.

comet,

comet, though dangerous to the general ſyſtem, he is ſtill an object of admiration and wonder to every beholder.—The two figures of Hotſpur and the Courtier, in the above ſpeech, form an admirable contraſt, and would be an excellent ſubject for a picture.

Hotſpur exaſperated.

King Henry. Send me your priſoners with the ſpeedieſt means,
Or you ſhall hear in ſuch a kind from me
As will diſpleaſe you. My lord Northumberland,
We licenſe your departure with your ſon:
Send us your priſoners, or you'll hear of it.
[*Exeunt the King and his train.*
Hotſpur. And if the devil come and roar for them,
I will not ſend them: I will after ſtraight,
And tell him ſo; for I will eaſe my heart,
Although it be with hazard of my head.

The king, notwithſtanding the generous interpoſition of ſir Walter Blunt, could not be prevailed upon to accept the preceding apology from Hotſpur; and, after ſome previous altercation, we find him proceeding to peremptory command and menace. This rouſes the fiery ſoul of Hotſpur, and in the ſcene between him and his father and uncle, to the cloſe of the firſt act, his anger rages almoſt to madneſs. It is wonderful that Shakſpeare, from bare chronicles, coarſe hiſtory, and traditional tales, could thus extract the fire of the martial ſpirit of Hotſpur. The wrath of Achilles, in Homer, is not ſuſtained with more dignity. Each hero is offended, that the prize of valour, 'due to many a well fought day,' is rudely ſnatched from him by the hand of power. The miſdemeanors of Hotſpur riſe ſo naturally out of his temper, and that temper is ſo noble, that we are almoſt as much intereſted for him as for a more virtuous character. His great aſpiring ſoul bears out rebellion: it ſeems, in him, to flow from an uncontrollable energy of ſoul, born to give laws, too potent to receive them. In every ſcene, he appears with the ſame animation: he is always that Percy,

Whoſe ſpirit lent a fire
Even to the dulleſt peaſant in the camp,
Led ancient lords and rev'rend biſhops on
To bloody battles and to bruiſing arms.

In a word, it might be expected that an author of more learning had the character of Achilles in his eye, and alſo the advice of Horace in the manner of repreſenting it on the ſtage.

Impiger, iracundus, inexorabilis, acer,
Jura neget ſibi nata, nihil non arroget armis.

Impatient, fierce, inexorable, proud,
His ſword alone his law.

He has the frankneſs too of Achilles, and the ſame abhorrence of falſehood: he is as impatient of Owen Glendower's pretenſions to ſupernatural powers, as to the king's aſſuming a right over his priſoners. In the intended diviſion of the kingdom, he will not yield a foot of ground to thoſe who diſpute with him, but would give any thing to a well-deſerving friend.

Dangerous Obligations.

Worceſter. And 'tis no little reaſon bids us ſpeed,
To ſave our heads by raiſing of a head [*an army*]:
For, bear ourſelves as even as we can,
The king will always think him in our debt;
And think we think ourſelves unſatisfied,
Till he hath found a time to pay us home.
And ſee already, how he doth begin
To make us ſtrangers to his looks of love.

This is the natural deſcription of the ſtate of mind between thoſe that have conferred and thoſe that have received obligations too great to be ſatisfied. That this would be the event of Northumberland's diſloyalty was predicted by king Richard, in the former play. And, in the early part of this ſcene, Worceſter had intimated to king Henry the obliga-

tions

tions which he was under to their family:

Our houſe, my ſovereign liege, little deſerves
The ſcourge of greatneſs to be uſed on it;
And that ſame greatneſs too which our own hands
Have holp to make ſo portly.

To which the king anſwers:

Worceſter, get thee gone, for I do ſee
Danger and diſobedience in thine eye:
O, ſir, your preſence is too bold and peremptory,
And majeſty might never yet endure
The moody frontier [*forehead*] of a ſervant brow.
You have good leave to leave us: when we need
Your uſe and counſel, we ſhall ſend for you.

This is a further proof how well Shakſpeare, with the ſagacity of a Tacitus, has obſerved the jealouſies that muſt ariſe between a family, which has conferred a crown, and the king who has received it, who will always think the preſence of ſuch benefactors 'too bold and peremptory.'

Prodigies ridiculed.

Glendower. I cannot blame him: at my nativity,
The front of heaven was full of fiery ſhapes,
Of burning creſſets; and, at my birth,
The frame and huge foundation of the earth
Shak'd like a coward.
Hotſpur. Why, ſo it would have done
At the ſame ſeaſon, if your mother's cat
Had but kitten'd, though you yourſelf had ne'er been born.
* * * * *
Diſeaſed nature oftentimes breaks forth
In ſtrange eruptions: oft the teeming earth
Is with a kind of cholick pinch'd and vex'd
By the impriſoning of unruly wind
Within her womb; which, for enlargement ſtriving,
Shakes the old beldame Earth, and topples down
Steeples and moſs-grown towers.

The poet has here taken, from the perverſeneſs and contrariouſneſs of Hotſpur's temper, an opportunity of raiſing his character, by a very rational and philoſophical confutation of ſuperſtitious error.

The Soothing of a Song.

Mortimer. O, I am ignorance itſelf in this.
Glendower. She bids you,
Upon the wanton ruſhes * lay you down,
And reſt your gentle head upon her lap,
And ſhe will ſing the ſong that pleaſeth you,
And on your eyelids crown the god of ſleep,
Charming your blood with pleaſing heavineſs;
Making ſuch difference 'twixt wake and ſleep,
As is the difference betwixt day and night,
The hour before the heavenly-harneſs'd team
Begins his golden progreſs in the eaſt.

Lady Mortimer, daughter to Glendower, not being able to ſpeak any language but Welſh to her huſband, which he does not underſtand, the father undertakes to interpret between them; in doing which, he here gives a beautiful deſcription of that moſt pleaſing criſis of mind and body, when the paſſions are juſt ſubſiding to reſt, but the ſenſes not yet deprived of their notices. It is as if he had ſaid, 'She will lull you by her ſong into ſoft tranquillity, in which you ſhall be ſo near to ſleep as to be free from perturbation, and ſo much awake as to be ſenſible of pleaſure; a ſtate partaking of ſleep and wakefulneſs, as the twilight of night and day.'

Silly Expletives.

Hotſpur. Come, Kate, I'll have your ſong too.
Lady Percy. Not mine, in good ſooth.
Hotſpur. Not yours, in good ſooth! 'Heart, you ſwear like a comfit-maker's wife! Not you, in good ſooth; and, As true as I live; and, As God ſhall mend me; and, As ſure as day:

* It was the cuſtom in this country, for many ages, to ſtrew the floors with ruſhes, as we now cover them with carpets.

And

And giv'ſt ſuch ſarcenet ſurety for thy oaths,
As if thou never walk'dſt further than Finſbury.
Swear me, Kate, like a lady as thou art,
A good mouth-filling oath; and leave *in ſooth*,
And ſuch proteſt of pepper gingerbread,
To velvet guards and Sunday citizens.
Come ſing.

In this ſpeech of Hotſpur's, the uſual expletives of converſation, and childiſh phraſes of aſſeveration, are humorouſly ridiculed. This ſpeech, moreover, is incidentally informing with reſpect to the cuſtoms and manners in our author's time. The ſpot on which that noble improvement of the city, Finſbury-ſquare, now ſtands, and other parts adjacent to Chiſwell-ſtreet, London Wall by Bethlem, &c. were then open walks and fields, the common reſort of the citizens. By 'proteſt of pepper gingerbread' we are to underſtand, proteſtations as common as the letters which children learn from an alphabet of gingerbread; what we now call *ſpice gingerbread* being then called *pepper gingerbread*. Velvet guards appear to have been then a city faſhion; and Sunday citizens were, perhaps, the higher rank of female citizens, the wives either of merchants or of wealthy ſhopkeepers.

King Henry's Expoſtulation with his Son.

I know not whether God will have it ſo,
For ſome diſpleaſing ſervice I have done,
That, in his ſecret doom, out of my blood,
He'll breed revengement and a ſcourge for me;
But thou doſt, in thy paſſages of life,
Make me believe that thou art only mark'd
For the hot vengeance and the rod of heaven,
To puniſh my miſtreadings. Tell me elſe,
Could ſuch inordinate and low deſires;
Such poor, ſuch bare, ſuch lewd, ſuch mean attempts,
Such barren pleaſures, rude ſociety,
As thou art match'd withal, and grafted to,
Accompany the greatneſs of thy blood,
And hold their level with thy princely heart?

The young prince making a modeſt ſubmiſſive anſwer, the king thus proceeds:

God pardon thee! Yet let me wonder, Harry,
At thy affections, which do hold a wing
Quite from the flight of all thy anceſtors.
Thy place in council thou haſt rudely loſt,
Which by thy younger brother is ſupplied;
And art almoſt an alien to the hearts
Of all the court and princes of my blood:
The hope and expectation of thy time
Is ruin'd; and the ſoul of every man
Prophetically does forethink thy fall.
Had I ſo laviſh of my preſence been,
So common-hackney'd in the eyes of men,
So ſtale and cheap to vulgar company;
Opinion, that did help me to the crown,
Had ſtill kept loyal to poſſeſſion *;
And left me in reputeleſs baniſhment,
A fellow of no mark, nor likelihood.
By being ſeldom ſeen, I could not ſtir,
But, like a comet, I was wondered at:
That men would tell their children, *This is he*;
Others would ſay, *Where? Which is Bolingbroke?*
And then I ſtole all courteſy from heaven †,
And dreſs'd myſelf in ſuch humility,
That I did pluck allegiance from men's hearts,
Loud ſhouts and ſalutations from their mouths,
Even in the preſence of the crowned king.
Thus I did keep my perſon freſh and new;
My preſence, like a robe pontifical,
Ne'er ſeen but wonder'd at; and ſo my ſtate,
Seldom, but ſumptuous, ſhew'd like a feaſt;
And won, by rareneſs, ſuch ſolemnity.

* True to him that had then poſſeſſion of the throne.

† An alluſion to the ſtory of Prometheus, who ſtole *fire* from heaven; and as with *this* he made a man, ſo Bolingbroke with *courteſy* made a king. As the gods were ſuppoſed jealous in appropriating *reaſon* to themſelves, the getting *fire* thence, which lighted it up in the mind, was called a theft; and as *power* is alſo their prerogative, the getting *courteſy* thence, by which power is beſt procured, is called a theft. The thought is exquiſitely great and beautiful.

The

The ſkipping king, he ambled up and down
With ſhallow jeſters, and raſh bavin wits,
Soon kindled and ſoon burn'd; carded his ſtate;
Mingled his royalty with capering fools;
Had his great name profaned with their ſcorns;
And gave his countenance againſt his name *,
To laugh at gibing boys †, and ſtand the puſh
Of every beardleſs vain comparative ‡:
Grew a companion to the common ſtreets;
Enfeoff'd himſelf to popularity ‖:
That, being daily ſwallow'd by men's eyes,
They ſurfeited with honey; and began
To loath the taſte of ſweetneſs, whereof a little
More than a little is by much too much.
So, when he had occaſion to be ſeen,
He was but as the cuckoo is in June,
Heard, not regarded; ſeen, but with ſuch eyes,
As, ſick and blunted with community,
Afford no extraordinary gaze,
Such as is bent on ſun-like majeſty
When it ſhines ſeldom in admiring eyes:
But rather drown'd, and hung their eye-lids down,
Slept in his face, and render'd ſuch aſpect
As cloudy men uſe to their adverſaries;
Being with his preſence glutted, gorg'd, and full.
And in that very line, Harry, ſtand'ſt thou:
For thou haſt loſt thy princely privilege,
With vile participation; not an eye
But is a weary of thy common ſight,
Save mine, which hath deſir'd to ſee thee more;
Which now doth that I would not have it do,
Make blind itſelf with fooliſh tenderneſs.

Shakſpeare's character of Henry IV is perfectly agreeable to that given him by hiſtorians. The play opens, as obſerved before, by his declaring his intention to make war againſt the Muſſulmans, which he does not undertake, as was uſual in thoſe times, from ſuperſtitious motives, but from merely political conſiderations: that the martial ſpirit might not break out at home in civil wars; nor peace and inactivity give them an opportunity to enquire into his title to the crown, and diſcuſs too much a point, which would not bear cloſe examination. Henry had the ſpecious talents, which aſſiſt a man, under certain circumſtances, to uſurp a kingdom; but either from the want of thoſe great and ſolid qualities, which are neceſſary to maintain opinion loyal to the throne to which it had raiſed him, or from the impoſſibility of ſatisfying the expectations of thoſe who had aſſiſted his uſurpation, it is certain that his reign was full of diſcontents and troubles. The popular arts by which he captivated the multitude, are finely deſcribed in the above ſpeech. Any other poet would have thought that he ſufficiently acquitted himſelf, by a general fatherly admonition, delivered with the dignity becoming a monarch: but Shakſpeare ſeldom deals in common-place and general morals. The peculiar temper and circumſtances of the perſon, and the exigency of the time, influence the ſpeaker as in real life. It is not the king and parent only, but Henry Plantagenet that reproves the prince of Wales. How natural is it for him, on Percy's revolt, to recur to his own rebellion againſt Richard, and to apprehend that the ſame levities which loſt that king, firſt the opinion, and then the allegiance of his ſubjects, ſhould deprive the prince of Wales of his ſucceſſion! Nothing can be better imagined than the parallel he draws between himſelf and Percy, Richard II, and Henry of Monmouth, in the next ſpeech.

* Made his preſence injurious to his reputation.
† At the *jeſts* of gibing boys.
‡ Of every boy whoſe vanity incited him to try his wit againſt the kings!—When Lewis XIV was aſked, why, with ſo much wit, he never attempted raillery, he anſwered, that he who practiſed raillery ought to bear it in his turn, and that to ſtand the butt of raillery was not ſuitable to the dignity of a king. *Scudery.*
‖ Gave himſelf up abſolutely and entirely to *it.*

H. Holland Esq.r Architect. T. Prattent del.t et sc.t

View of the THEATRE ROYAL, Drury Lane.

For all the world,
As thou art to this hour, was Richard then
When I from France ſet foot at Ravenſpurg;
And even as I was then, is Percy now.
Now by my ſceptre, and my ſoul to boot,
He hath more intereſt to the ſtate,
Than thou, the ſhadow of ſucceſſion, &c.

The affectionate father, the offended king, the provident politician, and the conſcious uſurper, are all united in the whole of this parental expoſtulation.

A Deſcription of the NEW THEATRE ROYAL, DRURY-LANE: *With a Perſpective View of the North and Weſt Fronts of that magnificent Structure.*

ALTHOUGH the New Theatre, Drury Lane, is ſo far finiſhed, as to permit a regular performance of plays, the ſtructure, in all its parts, is not yet completed. The plate annexed, therefore, is a repreſentation of the theatre, not as it is at preſent, but as it will appear when finiſhed. The north front, toward Ruſſel-ſtreet, is completed as it appears on the left ſide of the plate, except at the two extremities, which belong to the eaſt and weſt fronts, and which will each contain ſeven of the windows on each ſtory. The ſouth front is finiſhed in the ſame manner. The weſt front, on the right ſide of the plate, and the eaſt front, are yet to be raiſed. Theſe two fronts are to contain a coffee-houſe, tavern, library, ſhops of various ſorts, and reſidences for the performers and others belonging to the theatre.

The whole ſtructure is to be inſulated, and the colonnade of the Ionic order, which covers the foot-way, is to be continued all round. This will afford ſhelter below, and, at the ſame time, form a terrace before the windows of the theatre above, which, when ſecured with ornamented iron-work, and lighted by a number of lamps, as it is intended it ſhall be, will contribute very greatly to the elegance of the appearance. The plan will include an area of upward of 320 feet in length, by 155 in breadth, and the height of the building, meaſuring from the ſubſtruction to the roof, is 118 feet.

The buildings which ſurround the theatre are faced with Portland ſtone, and will be finiſhed with a balluſtrade. The theatre, which riſes above them, is to be faced with ſtone, and finiſhed alſo with a balluſtrade.—Through the roof riſes a turret, maſking a large ventilator, and a ſtaircaſe which leads to a terrace on the roof. On the ſummit is placed a figure of Apollo, more than ten feet high, which is to be removed to the weſt front when finiſhed, and replaced by one of Shakſpeare.

The accommodations for the ſtage are upon a much larger ſcale than thoſe of any other theatre in Europe. The opening for the ſcenery is 43 feet wide and 38 high; after which the painter and mechaniſt will have a large ſpace of 83 feet in width, 92 in length, and 110 in height, for the exertion of their reſpective abilities.

In the roof of the theatre are contained, beſide the barrel loft, ample room for the ſcene-painters, and four very large reſervoirs, from which water is diſtributed over every part of the houſe, for the purpoſe of inſtantly extinguiſhing fire, in any part where ſuch accident is poſſible: at the ſame time the greateſt precautions have been uſed to prevent any ſuch misfortune, by the application of every kind of ſecurity that expence and ingenuity can ſuggeſt. Beſide other precautions, an iron curtain has been contrived, which, on any ſuch occaſion, would completely prevent all communication between the audience and the ſtage, where alone accidents by fire have been known to commence.

The audience part of the theatre is formed nearly on a ſemi-circular plan. It contains a pit, eight boxes on each ſide of the pit, two rows of boxes above them, and two galleries, which command a full view of every part of the ſtage. On each ſide of the galleries are two more rows of boxes, riſing to a cove, which is ſo contrived as to form the ceiling into a complete circle. The Proſcenium, or that part of the ſtage which is contained between the curtain and orcheſtra, is fitted up with boxes, but without any ſtage-door, or the uſual addition of large columns. The boxes are furniſhed with chairs in the front rows, and behind with benches. The trimming and covering are all of blue velvet.

The corridors which ſurround the boxes are ſpacious, and communicate with each other by means of ſtair-caſes in the angles of the theatre. At the weſt end of the theatre is a very large ſemi-circular room, opening by an arch to the corridors, and having fire places in it and bar-rooms, from which the company may be ſupplied with refreſhments. There are alſo large ſaloons on the north and ſouth ſides of the theatre, and alſo hand-ſome ſquare rooms; one of which is intended for the uſe of his majeſty, and the other for the prince of Wales. Theſe rooms are fitted up in the modern taſte, with large handſome pannels and glaſſes, and are ſuſceptible of a great deal of decoration, which is intended to be introduced, as ſoon as the ornaments can be obtained from the artiſts who are engaged in the preparation of them.

The decorations of the theatre are in a ſtyle entirely new, and are intended to have a richneſs of effect, and, at the ſame time, a ſimplicity, which may gratify the eye without interfering with any of the decorations which appear on the ſtage. With this view the ceiling has been painted with compartments of one colour only, and the ſame ſtyle of painting prevails through the decorations of the galleries. The fronts and inſides of the boxes have for their ground a clear blue colour, richly ornamented in chiaro oſcuro. The different rows are ſupported by ſilver columns of antique forms, and the cut-glaſs luſtres are attached to theſe columns by ſilver brackets. In the centre pannels on the front of the boxes are introduced paintings, by Rebecca, from antique ſubjects. Beſide the ſilver columns which ſupport the boxes, there are four principal ſquare, but ſmall pillars, which ſupport the ceiling, and are decorated with looking glaſs. The ſound-board or ceiling of the Proſcenium is painted in compartments, and in the front of the Proſcenium is introduced the royal arms, with trophies and other ſuitable accompaniments.

From Ruſſel-ſtreet are two box-entrances into a large hall, decorated with columns; another entrance which leads to the gallery ſtaircaſe, and alſo a private entrance for his majeſty. On the other ſide of the theatre, next Marquis-court, the ſame entrances are repeated: but, till the new ſtreet (which is intended to be called Woburn-ſtreet) is opened, theſe can only be approached by foot paſſengers, or by company coming in chairs. As a chair-door, the box entrance on that ſide is at preſent more complete than is any other public building in London. There are five other entrances to the theatre alſo incomplete, one next Bridges-ſtreet for the pit, one for the boxes, two for the galleries, and one in Drury-lane for the ſtage.

In a future number we ſhall give the ground plan of the theatre.

Plan

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceased in* 1793 *.

Lord MANSFIELD.

WILLIAM MURRAY, earl of Mansfield, one of the most accomplished noblemen and eminent lawyers of this century, was the fourth son of David the fifth viscount Stormont, and was born at Perth, in Scotland, on the second of March 1705. Of the family of this illustrious character we have already given an account †. He was removed to London so early as 1708, when not more than three years of age; a circumstance, which will account for his not having contracted any of the peculiarities in the dialect and pronunciation of his country. The first rudiments of education he received at Westminster school, to which he was admitted a king's scholar at the age of fourteen. During the time of his being at this school, says a late right reverend prelate, "he gave early proofs of his uncommon abilities, not so much in poetry as in his other exercises, and particularly in his declamations, which were sure tokens and prognostics of that eloquence which grew up to such perfection at the bar, and in both houses of parliament ‡." At the election for May 1723, he stood first on the list of the gentlemen who were then sent to the university of Oxford. He was entered of Christ Church College, on the 18th of June, in the same year. In 1727, he took the degree of bachelor of arts; and, in the same year, distinguished himself by some Latin verses on the death of George the first. On the 26th of June 1730, he took the degree of master of arts; and during his residence at the university, he wrote, as college exercises, a character of Demosthenes in very elegant Latin, and some beautiful Latin verses on the magnificent palace of Blenheim.

On leaving the university, he made the tour of Europe, in order to study men and manners as well as books. At his return, having determined to follow that profession, which is now the great avenue to affluence, to honours, and to fame, he became a member of the society of Lincoln's Inn.

The abilities and accomplishments of Mr. Murray were now so conspicuous, that his conversation was courted by the most distinguished persons for genius and wit, for science and learning; and as these qualifications were, at that period, the characteristics of some of the highest rank and fortune in the kingdom, it is no wonder that his own splendid talents enforced the claims he derived from his illustrious birth to an admission into the first circles, and to an intimacy with persons of the first consequence.

Mr. Pope, in particular, regarded this rising character with the greatest warmth of affection; and perhaps no man ever deserved more to have a poet for his friend. In their mutual intercourse neither vanity, nor party, nor fear had the least influence upon their conduct. Mr. Murray supported his claims to the partiality of Pope by all the good offices of the most generous and unaffected friendship; and the latter, in some of his poems, was proud to compliment his friend, not in the fulsome strains of adulation, but with that elegance of praise, which he thought due to one of the handsomest men and most accomplished characters of his time. Thus, in his imitation of an Ode of Horace, addressed to Venus:

Spread round Murray all your blooming
Noble and young, who strikes the heart
With every sprightly, every decent part;

* See Biographical Register for 1792, in our Magazine for Sept. and Octo. 1793.
† Universal Magazine for October 1785, page 201.
‡ Life of Bishop Newton, page 21.

Equal, the injur'd to defend,
To charm the miſtreſs, or to fix the friend.
He, with a hundred arts refin'd,
Shall ſtretch thy conqueſts over all thy kind:
To him each rival ſhall ſubmit,
Make but his riches equal to his wit.
Lib. iv. Od. 2.

And in the Dunciad, ſpeaking of thoſe who were diverted from poetical purſuits to thoſe of law or politics:

There truant Wyndham ev'ry muſe gave o'er;
There Talbot ſunk, and was a wit no more.
How ſweet an Ovid, Murray was our boaſt!
How many Martials were in Pulteney loſt!
Book IV, line 167.

Again, in his imitation of one of the Epiſtles of the Roman Poet, which he addreſſes 'To Mr. Murray,' a noble compliment is dignified by a moral reflection, not leſs noble:

If not ſo pleas'd, at council-board rejoice,
To ſee their judgments hang upon thy voice;
From morn to night, at Senate, Rolls, and Hall,
Plead much, read more, dine late, or not eat all.
But wherefore all this labour, all this ſtrife?
For fame, for riches, for a noble wife?
Shall one whom Nature, Learning, Birth conſpir'd
To form, not to admire, but be admir'd,
Sigh, while his Chloe, blind to wit and worth,
Weds the rich dulneſs of ſome ſon of earth?
Yet time ennobles, or degrades each line;
It brighten'd Craggs', and may darken thine.
And what is fame? The meaneſt have their day;
The greateſt can but blaze, and paſs away.
Grac'd as thou art, with all the pow'r of words;
So known, ſo honour'd at the Houſe of Lords;
Conſpicuous ſcene! another yet is nigh,
(More ſilent far) where kings and poets lie;
Where Murray (long enough his country's pride)
Shall be no more than Tully or than Hyde.
Lib. i. Ep. 6.

In 1731, Mr. Murray was called to the bar, and very early came into full buſineſs of the higheſt kind. Such, indeed, was his reputation, that there was very little interval between his firſt appearance and his being univerſally reſorted to in all matters of conſequence. In a word, when he was of that ſtanding in which moſt barriſters are looking forward for employment, Mr. Murray led the bar; nor did any cauſe of importance come before the court, in which his aſſiſtance was not ardently ſolicited by the reſpective parties.

In 1738, Mr. Murray married lady Eliſabeth Finch, daughter of Daniel the ſixth earl of Winchelſea. This alliance with a noble family, that was eminently diſtinguiſhed by the friendſhip of his late majeſty, could not be ſuppoſed to be any impediment to a rapid riſe in his profeſſion. In 1742, he was appointed ſolicitor-general, having been previouſly advanced to the rank of king's counſel; at which time he was elected member of parliament for Boroughbridge in Yorkſhire. He was returned for this place in 1747 and 1754, and took an active part in all the debates of conſequence, till his ſubſequent removal to the houſe of lords. In 1754, he ſucceeded ſir Dudley Ryder as attorney-general; and it is ſtill remembered, that during the time he held this office, he ſucceeded in many cauſes, civil and criminal, for the king, and never loſt one; becauſe he made it a rule that the king ſhould always be clearly in the right; and, the moment that the caſe appeared, in his opinion, to be doubtful, he gave it up.

On the 8th of November 1756, he was appointed lord chief juſtice of the court of King's-bench, in the room of ſir Dudley Ryder, deceaſed; and, immediately after, was created a peer of Great Britain, by the title of baron Mansfield, of Mansfield, in the county of

of Nottingham. About the ſame time, he was admitted into the privy-council. From this period, the buſineſs of the court of King's-bench became prodigious. Nothing hung undecided: no cunning could withſtand the reſearches of his penetration. Complete maſter of every buſineſs that came before him, and of every ſubject he undertook to diſcuſs, he unfolded with eaſe the moſt difficult caſes, and ſtated them to others with perſpicuity and preciſion. The powers of his oratory were irreſiſtible; his voice peculiarly harmonious; his manner uncommonly graceful; his language perfectly pure; and his ſtyle forcible, nervous, and perſpicuous. His conception was naturally quick, and his memory uncommonly tenacious; ſo that, in his judicial capacity, he was equally ready to furniſh cases from the beſt authorities, and to apply them with conviction to the cauſe before him. In the council too, his aſſiſtance was often relied upon, almoſt ſingly, in the determination of all cauſes relating to the plantations or to prizes. The preciſion, impartiality, and diſpatch with which the latter were accompanied, were the admiration of the whole world, and obtained univerſal acquieſcence and ſatisfaction, both at home and abroad.

Not only in the court of King's-bench, but in the houſe of lords, this illuſtrious judge was ever an advocate for toleration and religious liberty, an enemy to every kind of perſecution for religious opinions. A Roman catholic prieſt was maliciouſly proſecuted in the court of King's-bench, for having ſaid maſs. Lord Mansfield, with his uſual acumen, ſoon ſaw the drift of the proſecution, and thus queſtioned the principal witneſs: 'You are certain then, that this man is a Popiſh prieſt, and ſaid maſs.'—'Yes, my lord.'—'Oh! you know then, what maſs is?'—Here the witneſs was confuſed, and, after ſome pauſe, anſwered in the negative. Upon which the humane, enlightened, and liberal judge thus informed the jury: 'To find this man guilty, you muſt have full proof that he ſaid maſs, and it muſt likewiſe be fully proved to you that it *was* the maſs which this man ſaid, when the witneſs ſaw him performing an act which he took to be the ſaying of maſs: you muſt judge, therefore, for yourſelves, whether your conſciences are entirely ſatisfied on this point.'—The jury inſtantly acquitted the priſoner.

The great cauſe between the city of London and the Diſſenters, in the year 1767, is well known. By the Teſt Act, a diſſenter, who ſhould take upon him certain offices, without having qualified himſelf according to the terms of that act, was puniſhable; and among the offices in this predicament was that of ſheriff; but by the bye laws of the corporation of London, a perſon refuſing to ſerve that office was liable to a heavy fine: ſo that a diſſenter, under theſe circumſtances was puniſhable if he ſerved the office, and puniſhable if he refuſed to ſerve it. Mr. Evans, a diſſenter, having been proſecuted for refuſing to ſerve the office, judgment was given againſt the city in the court of King's-bench, upon which the cauſe was removed, by appeal, into the houſe of lords. Lord Mansfield's ſpeech on this occaſion will do him immortal honour; and it is but juſtice to tranſcribe here that part of it which contains his ſpirited ſentiments concerning toleration, and religious liberty, in general:

'Conſcience,' obſerved his lordſhip, 'is not controulable by human laws, nor amenable to human tribunals. Perſecution, or attempts to force conſcience, will never produce conviction; and are only calculated to make hypocrites or martyrs.

'My lords, there never was a ſingle inſtance, from the Saxon times down to our own, in which a man was ever puniſhed for erroneous opinions concerning rites or modes of worſhip, but upon ſome poſitive law. The common law of England, which is only

only common reaſon or uſage, knows of no proſecution for mere opinions. For atheiſm, blaſphemy, and reviling the Chriſtian religion, there have been inſtances of perſons proſecuted and puniſhed upon the common law; but bare nonconformity is no ſin by the common law: and all poſitive laws, inflicting any pains or penalties for nonconformity to the eſtabliſhed rites and modes, are repealed by the act of toleration; and diſſenters are thereby exempted from all eccleſiaſtical cenſures.

'What bloodſhed and confuſion have been occaſioned, from the reign of Henry the fourth, when the firſt penal ſtatutes were enacted, down to the revolution, in this kingdom, by laws made to force conſcience! There is nothing, certainly, more unreaſonable, more inconſiſtent with the rights of human nature, more contrary to the ſpirit and precepts of the Chriſtian religion, more iniquitous and unjuſt, more impolitic, than perſecution. It is againſt natural religion, revealed religion, and ſound policy.

'Sad experience, and an enlarged mind, taught that great man, the preſident De Thou, this doctrine. Let any man read the many admirable things which, though a papiſt, he hath dared to advance upon the ſubject, in the dedication of his Hiſtory to Henry the fourth of France (which I have never read without rapture) and he will be fully convinced, not only how cruel, but how impolitic it is to perſecute for religious opinions. I am ſorry, that, of late, his countrymen have begun to open their eyes, ſee their error, and adopt his ſentiments: I ſhould not have broke my heart (I hope I may ſay ſo without breach of Chriſtian charity) if France had continued to cheriſh the Jeſuits, and to perſecute the Hugonots. There was no occaſion to revoke the edict of Nantes: the Jeſuits needed only to adviſe a plan ſimilar to what is contended for in the preſent caſe, make a law to render them incapable of office, make another to puniſh them for not ſerving. If they accept, puniſh them (for it is admitted, on all hands, that the defendant, in the cauſe before your lordſhips, is proſecutable for taking the office upon him) if they refuſe, puniſh them: if they ſay yes, puniſh them; if they ſay no, puniſh them.

'My lords, this is a moſt exquiſite dilemma, from which there is no eſcaping: it is a trap a man cannot eaſily get out of: it is as bad a proſecution as that of Procruſtes; if they are too ſhort, ſtretch them; if they are too long, lop them. Small would have been their conſolation, to have been gravely told, The edict of Nantes is kept inviolable; you have the full benefit of that act of toleration; you may take the ſacrament in your own way with impunity; you are not compelled to go to maſs. Were this caſe but told in the city of London as of a proceeding in France, how would they exclaim againſt the jeſuitical diſtinction! And yet, in truth, it comes from themſelves; the Jeſuits never thought of it: when they meant to proſecute, their act of toleration, their edict of Nantes, was repealed *.'

Nothing could place the judicial character of lord Mansfield in a nobler point of view than this celebrated ſpeech. Nor had he the mortification to experience often a reverſal of his deciſions. Sir James Burrows informs us, after reporting the famous caſe of Perrin and Blake †, that it was remarkable, that excepting that caſe, and another, in the ſame volume, of literary property, there had not been, from the 8th of November 1756, to the time of his then preſent publication, 26th of May 1776, a final difference of the court in any

* This memorable conteſt was terminated, on the 4th of February 1767, by the unanimous judgment of the houſe of peers, in favour of Allen Evans, eſq. the reſpondent. The whole of lord Mansfield's ſpeech may be ſeen in the Appendix to Furneaux' Letters to Mr. juſtice Blackſtone.

† Reports, page 2582.

caſe,

caſe, or upon any point whatſoever. 'It is remarkable too,' he adds, 'that, excepting theſe two caſes, no judgment given during the ſame period has been reverſed, either in the exchequer chamber, or in parliament; and even theſe reverſals were with great diverſity of opinion among the judges.'

It muſt not be concealed, however, that as an interpreter of the laws, the deciſions of this great man have not abſolutely paſſed uncenſured. His judgment in favour of the ſole legiſlative authority of the crown over conquered countries has been ſtrongly controverted in an elaborate and maſterly work, in which the author even attacks his judicial eloquence *. In a dialogue between a Frenchman and an Engliſhman, he introduces the former expreſſing his ſurpriſe at 'the very poſitive and peremptory manner in which lord Mansfield aſſerted this power of making laws for conquered countries to belong to the crown†.'—The Engliſhman allows his remark to be very juſt, and adds, 'There is a ſtrange degree of poſitiveneſs in his aſſertions, that is very ill-ſuited to the weakneſs of his arguments in ſupport of them. But that poſitiveneſs of aſſertion is agreeable to his conſtant manner of ſpeaking, and may, perhaps, be conſidered as one of the ingredients of his ſpecies of eloquence, as it certainly has the effect of dazzling, for a time, and overbearing his hearers into an acquieſcence in the truth of the propoſitions he ſo peremptorily aſſerts.—It has been thought, moreover, that the doctrine of lord Mansfield reſpecting the power of juries, that they are judges of the fact only, not of the law, had a tendency to weaken that great bulwark of Engliſh liberty. Let it be recollected, however, that when Mr. Fox's Libel Bill, which aſcertained this great point in favour of the ſubject, was introduced into the houſe of peers, the opinion of the judges was unanimouſly againſt the doctrine of the bill, as contrary to the law of the land; the late earl Camden being the only law lord that ſupported it.—The turbulent period of Mr. Wilkes' popularity may likewiſe be remembered, when torrents of abuſe were daily poured againſt his lordſhip, as a better friend to prerogative than to the liberty of the ſubject. But to theſe obſervations let us add the opinion of the great and good George lord Lyttelton, that in abilities and integrity lord Mansfield ſtood unrivalled.' From ſuch an authority who can eaſily differ; who, at leaſt, would dare without reluctance?

In thus deſcanting on the judicial character of lord Mansfield we have been neceſſarily led into a little violation of the order of chronology. To return: In 1757, the ill-ſucceſs of the war which had then recently commenced, occaſioned a change in the adminiſtration; and the conflicts of contending parties rendered it impracticable for the crown, at that juncture, to ſettle a new miniſtry. In order, therefore, to procure a pauſe to the violence of both ſides, lord Mansfield was induced to occupy the office of chancellor of the exchequer, on the ninth of April, and he held it till the ſecond of July, in the ſame

* It was the caſe of Campbell and Hall, better known by the name of the Grenada Cauſe. Lord Mansfield was of opinion, that the Crown had, by the proclamation of the 23d of October 1763, precluded itſelf from exerciſing its *right* of impoſing taxes on the inhabitants of Grenada, and had transferred it to the future governors, councils, and aſſemblies, of the ſaid iſland.

† The Frenchman gives this ſpecimen of his peremptory manner: 'No diſpute (ſays lord Mansfield, on the ſubject in queſtion) was ever ſtarted before upon the king's legiſlative right over a conqueſt. It was never denied in Weſtminſter Hall: it was never queſtioned in parliament.'—Again: 'No book, no ſaying of a judge, no opinion of any counſel, public or private, has been cited on the other ſide: no inſtance has been found in any period of our hiſtory, where a doubt has been raiſed concerning it.' *Canadian Freeholder, Vol. II.*

year

year. During this interval, he was ſucceſsfully employed in effecting a coalition, which, in the ſequel, was productive of a ſeries of events, that exalted Great Britain to the higheſt degree of power and proſperity ſhe had ever known. In the ſame year, he was offered, but refuſed the office of lord chancellor *. In 1776, he was created earl of Mansfield, in the county of Nottingham, with remainder to Louiſa viſcounteſs Stormont, and to her heirs-male by her huſband, David viſcount Stormont. The infirmities of age, at laſt, compelled him to abſent himſelf for many months, from the court of King's-bench, and on the third of June 1788, he reſigned the high office of lord chief juſtice of England, which he had held thirty-one years and ſeven months. Soon after, he received a letter, ſigned by the counſel of the King's-bench bar, who had practiſed in the court during his lordſhip's adminiſtration, expreſſive of their ſenſibility on this occaſion, and the exalted opinion they entertained of his conſpicuous talents, which had, in ſuch an eminent degree, conferred dignity on the profeſſion †. In 1792, by a new patent, he was created earl of Mansfield in the county of Middleſex, with remainder to his nephew David viſcount Stormont, above-mentioned. From the period of his reſignation, the bodily powers of his lordſhip continued to decline: his mental faculties, however, remained without decay, almoſt to the laſt. Retired from the active ſcenes of life, he ſtill felt an intereſt in the general happineſs. About the awful events, of which the French revolution was productive, he was particularly anxious and inquiſitive. He felt his ſenſibility wounded by the horrid inſtance of democratic infatuation, the murder of Louis XVI; and he rejoiced at the check which the French arms received in March 1793. He expired on the twentieth of that month, at his ſeat at Ken Wood, near Hampſtead, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. About a week before he died, he fell into a kind of calm inſenſibility. Juſt before that event, lord Stormont having occaſion to conſult him on a law-caſe pending in the houſe of lords, obſerved, that his ideas and recollection were perfectly clear. He had repeatedly commanded, that no methods whatever ſhould be tried to recover him from any ſtate of ſtupor or inſenſibility, merely to prolong a miſerable exiſtence. By his death, the title of earl of Mansfield, in the county of *Middleſex*, devolved on lord Stormont, and that of counteſs of Mansfield, in the county of *Nottingham*, in her own right, on lady Stormont; and if the counteſs ſhould die before her noble conſort, his lordſhip's eldeſt ſon will alſo be earl of Mansfield, and, by virtue of a prior creation, will take precedence of his father.—The late earl was privately interred (agreeably to his expreſs deſire) on the 28th of March, in Weſtminſter-Abbey, in the ſame vault with his counteſs, who died April 10, 1784. His ſeat at Ken Wood, and the bulk of his fortune, computed to be 400,000l. he bequeathed to the preſent earl.

We ſhall conclude theſe memoirs with an intereſting compariſon between the eloquence of lord Mansfield and that of the earl of Chatham, by Dr. Newton, the late biſhop of Briſtol: 'I always regarded lord Mansfield as the beſt and ableſt ſpeaker I had ever heard in parliament. Lord Chatham was indeed a great genius, and poſſeſſed extraordinary powers, quick conceptions, ready elocution, great command of language, a melodious voice, a piercing eye, a ſpeaking countenance, an authoritative air and manner, and was as great an actor as an orator. What was ſaid of the famous orator Pericles, that he

* He refuſed it ſucceſſively three times afterward, in 1770, 1779, and 1784.

† See this letter, and his lordſhip's anſwer, in the Supplement to our 2d Volume, page 374.

lightened and thundered and confounded Greece, was, in ſome meaſure, applicable to him; and, during the time of his ſucceſsful adminiſtration, he had the moſt abſolute and uncontrouled ſway, that perhaps any member ever had, in the houſe of commons. With all thoſe excellencies he was not without his defects. His language was ſometimes too figurative and pompous: his ſpeeches were ſeldom well connected, often deſultory, and rambling from one thing to another; ſo that, though you were ſtruck here and there with noble ſentiments and happy expreſſions, yet you could not well remember, nor give a clear account of, the whole together. With affected modeſty, he was apt to be too confident and overbearing in debate; ſometimes deſcended to perſonal invectives, and would firſt command that he might more effectually abuſe; would ever have the laſt word, and, right or wrong, ſtill preſerved (in his own phraſe) an *unembarraſſed countenance*. He ſpoke more to your paſſions than to your reaſon, more to thoſe below the bar and above the throne, than to the houſe itſelf; and, when that kind of audience was excluded, he ſunk, and loſt moſt of his weight and authority.—Lord Mansfield was happy in moſt of the ſame perfections, with few of the ſame failings and imperfections. His language was more natural and eaſy; his ſpeeches were more in a continued chain of reaſon, and ſometimes with regular diviſions, ſo that you eaſily accompanied him, and clearly comprehended the whole from the beginning to the end. What he ſaid, as well as his manner of ſaying it, was more modeſt and decent, leſs preſuming and dictatorial. He never deſcended to perſonal altercations, diſdained to reply even to reflections caſt upon himſelf, and in all things preſerved his own dignity and that of the houſe of peers. He addreſſed himſelf more to your reaſon than to your paſſions: he never courted popular applauſe ſo much as the approbation of the wiſe and good: he did not wiſh to take you by ſtorm or ſurpriſe, but ſought to prevail only by the force of reaſon and argument. He had always an immediate intuition into the merits of every cauſe or queſtion that came before him; and comprehending it clearly himſelf, could readily explain it to others. Perſuaſion flowed from his lips; conviction was wrought in all unprejudiced minds; and, for many years, the houſe of peers paid greater deference to his authority than to that of any man living.'

[To be continued.]

On ANCIENT *and* MODERN SUPERSTITION.

'There is nothing NEW under the Sun.' SOLOMON.

THE mind of man is ſo naturally addicted to ſuperſtition, that all the light and knowledge which have been ſo plentifully extended over the world ſince the eſtabliſhment of Chriſtianity and the revival of learning, have not been ſufficient to deſtroy its influences. It is, indeed, principally confined to minds of a weak texture, either half-informed, or ill-informed in the moſt ſimple dictates of reaſon. When, however, we look back to diſtant ages, to Greece and Rome, the nurſeries of the arts and ſciences, whence the greateſt heroes, and philoſophers, the beſt ſcholars and orators, and the moſt accompliſhed wits derived their birth, and where they diſplayed their abilities, we are loſt in wonder that a people enjoying the benefits of ſuch ſplendid talents as are yet the admiration of the learned, ſhould be ſunk in the loweſt abyſs of a ſuperſtition that cannot be reviewed without ridicule and contempt.

With reſpect to the Romans only, a people whom we are taught from

our infancy to reſpect, and who, indeed, in their better days, were truly venerable for their virtue and valour, what is there in their hiſtory more aſtoniſhing than their implicit belief in Augury? Their belief in omens, or preternatural appearances of the heavenly bodies, in eclipſes, comets, and dreadful thunder ſtorms, may be forgiven. They had made ſmall progreſs in aſtronomy; they had not learnt that an eclipſe is a matter of common calculation; and that ſtorms are, in moſt caſes, highly beneficial to the earth, and no wiſe connected with paſt or future events. But when we find them giving implicit credit to their prieſts who thought proper to predict good or evil, merely from the appearance of the entrails of ſacrificed animals, from the flight of birds, from chickens, wolves, foxes, &c. we are at a loſs to conceive how a deception of this kind could have prevailed, without being detected and expoſed by the good ſenſe of the people. The mob alone, or the common ſoldiers and ſailors, were not merely influenced by the reports of the Augurs; their kings and commanders undertook no expedition without conſulting theſe oracles, and were always unſucceſsful, if they confided ſo much in themſelves as to diſregard their opinions. In ſome caſes, it is eaſy to ſuppoſe that they might have been in concert with the Augurs, to promote ſome favourite point, to raiſe an enthuſiaſm in the people in their favour, or to inſpire the ſoldiers with fortitude in ſome dangerous enterpriſe. But it is not ſo eaſy to ſuppoſe that this was always the caſe, becauſe upon the evidence of their hiſtorians, it appears that there was generally but little connexion between them, and that although the people looked to the commander for *orders*, they regarded the augurs as ſuperior beings who were to grant *ſucceſs*.

The art of augury the Romans had from the Tuſcans, and they from the Greeks, who probably derived it from the Chaldeans; but the progreſs of the art is as abſurd as the origin is obſcure. The wonder is, that it had ſo much influence upon a people, in the whole of whoſe hiſtory we find ſo many brilliant examples of ſolid ſenſe, of learning, and of eloquence. Their hiſtorians, who rank among the moſt learned of their writers, and of whoſe abilities we can even now be judges, gravely relate the proceſs of conſulting augury, and the ſucceſs of it. Yet the Augurs were men following one another in regular ſucceſſion. Was there none to betray the ſecret? Was the art of juggling an hereditary ſecret without one interruption? Tyranny firſt broke the chain. When Rome was governed by tyrants, theſe deſpiſed augury, and proſecuted their wicked purpoſes, whatever might be the appearance of the entrails of an ox; and as they, no doubt, often ſucceeded in their enterpriſes, augury would naturally fall into diſrepute. Theſe circumſtances, in the great chain of cauſes and events, would naturally pave the way for a more rational religion. We are indebted to Henry VIII, for the commencement of the reformation; but if the pope would have ſanctioned his luſt and his extortion, that advantage would have probably been derived from a better ſovereign.

But is it not remarkable, that although we read of the Grecian and Roman ſuperſtition with wonder and ſome degree of contempt, we cannot acquit ourſelves of having yet retained a very conſiderable portion of the ſame ſuperſtitious ſpirit? We are even indebted to them for almoſt all our popular whims. A hare croſſing the way, a perſon ſneezing, ſtumbling, hearing ſtrange voices, and the falling of ſalt upon the table, were all, with them, omens of good or evil, according to circumſtances, and remain ſo with thouſands at this day, and in this enlightened country. Perſons of otherwiſe no mean underſtanding have been greatly perplexed, and have even turned pale at ſuch occurrences. To theſe we may add, a coal ſtarting

from

from the fire, the death-watch, the ſediment of the ſugar riſing to the top of a cup of tea, and many others. We may alſo mention the ſucceſs of thoſe impoſtors, who pretend to calculate nativites, and predict events; and the many fooliſh inſtances of belief in the ſucceſs of lottery tickets.

Ignorant as the Romans were of a ſuperintending Providence, and of the revealed will of the Divine majeſty, their truſt in ſuch omens was pardonable, and deceived as they were by the artifices of their ſoothſayers, who could contrive to *time* their prophecies, and expreſs them in ſuch a manner as that they ſhould appear to be punctually fulfilled, we cannot wonder if the wiſeſt among them were induced to place confidence in impoſture. But that we ſhould be as much attached to this ſpecies of divination is a weakneſs, than which there is none we ought more to bluſh at. Although we boaſt of our ſuperior underſtandings, improved as they are by the knowledge of eighteen centuries, we are guilty of a weakneſs which is excuſeable only in an unenlightened heathen. This ſubject might, perhaps, be treated with the ridicule of ſatire, or the ſilence of contempt, but the more we conſider it, the more we ſhould be inclined to doubt the fact, that a human and reaſonable being can exiſt ſo weak, as to believe that futurity can be revealed by trifling events, or by the loweſt of mankind under the name of conjurors. But the fact cannot be doubted; caſes of the kind occur every day; and the happineſs of individuals and families often lies at the mercy of ſuch impoſtors.

Thoſe who are addicted to this ſpecies of ſuperſtitious credulity are no doubt of that claſs of people who are called *well-meaning*, and would be greatly incenſed were we to aſk them whether they believed in the ſuperintendence of a Divine Providence. They would anſwer, 'Surely, God forbid we did not!'—And yet is it conſiſtent with our received ideas, or with the revealed wiſdom and perfections of the Deity, to ſuppoſe that he ſhould declare that futurity is locked up from the penetration of mankind, and yet ſhould reveal the events of it by the ſediment of a cup of coffee, the flame of a candle, or the ſtarting of a ſulphureous coal? Is not this putting the greateſt inſult upon him? A ſtep farther, indeed, we have gone, and but a ſtep toward the very higheſt inſult; we have ſuppoſed that he makes known the ſecrets of futurity to the meaneſt of vagrants and impoſtors, to men and women whom the magiſtrate very properly puniſhes as much againſt their foreknowledge, as againſt their inclination. The impoſſibility of our acquiring by any means a knowledge of future events, and the miſerable condition of human life if we had that knowledge, might be here inſiſted on; but they muſt be obvious to every thinking man. A better diſſuaſive from the credulity which is the ſubject of this ſhort paper, would be to inſiſt upon the groſs and inſulting impiety of endeavouring to pry into what the deity has pronounced hid and concealed, and that by agents, the moſt mean and contemptible. Let thoſe who are ſtill credulous in the appearance of their coffee-grounds, their ſpilling of ſalt, and the impoſtures of pretended diviners, conſider with what propriety, decency, and reſpect, they can hereafter appeal to the deity by the epithets of *all-ſeeing* and *omniſcient*; and when they have done that, let them reflect upon the dignity and importance of thoſe agents, in whoſe revelations they confide, in preference to his decrees.

MISAUGUR.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, Auguſt 1794.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,69	62,5	68	53	5	S 1	. little rain. fine: ſhowery
	2	29,55	69	69	50	3	S 2	: more wind and ſhowery
2	7	29,47	01	66	51	2	SSW 3	. little wet at times: ſhowers
	2	29,50	66	68,5	50,5	3	W 2	
3	7	29,76	53	63	49	3	WSW 2	: much rain
	2	29,73	62	65	49	4	WSW 3	
4	7	29,64	58	63,5	49,5	4	W 2	. little wet
	2	29,62	66	65	45	4	W 2	. fine
5	7	29,76	55	62	49		NW	cloudy
	2	29,73	64,5	65,5	46		W	cloudy
6	7	29,60	58	64	55		SSE	little rain
	2	29,54	62	66	54,5		WSW	much rain
7	7	29,53	59	64	57		SW	little rain
	2	29,51	70	66	53,5		SSW	violent thunder ſtorm
8	7	29,68	56,5	64	55		NW	little rain
	2	29,85	63	64	52		NNW	fine
9	7	30,06	63,5	62	52		N	fine
F	2	30,08	63,5	63,5	49		NW	fine
10	7	30,09	55	63.5	52		W	cloudy. fine
	2	30,07	62,5	64	49,5		NW	fine
11	7	30,02	62	64	57		WSW	little rain. fine
	2	30,00	72	68	55		W	fine. little rain
12	7	30,10	59,5	64,5	54		NNW	fine
	2	30,15	70	66	49		NW	fine
13	7	30,22	65,5	63,5	53,5		SE	fine
	2	30,19	70	66	47		SW	fine
14	7	30,10	57,5	65	53		SSE	fine
	2	30,03	72	68	45		SE	fine
15	7	30,10	60,5	65,5	52		ESE	cloudy. fine
	2	29,82	71,5	67,5	47,5		SE	fine. little rain at eve
16	7	29,81	61,5	66	52		SSW	fine
	2	29,81	70	68,5	50,5		WSW	cloudy
17	7	29,72	63,5	67	51		SW	fine
	2	29,73	75	71	45		SW	fine
18	7	29,90	61	63	53		W	fine
	2	29,92	73	64	43		SW	fine
19	7	29,92	57,5	63	52		WSW	fine
	2	29,89	71	68,5	46		S	fine
20	7	29,97	59	65	51		N	fine
	2	29,99	68,5	68	46		NNW	fine
21	7	30,10	56,5	62	55,5		NW	cloudy. fine
	2	30,09	68,5	66	46,5		WNW	fine
22	7	29,90	64	63,5	50		NNW	fine
	2	29,98	68	65	46		WNW	fine
23	7	29,77	60	65,5	61,5		SW	much rain
	2	29,94	71	67,5	44,5		WSW	fine
24	7	29,89	54,5	65	51		W	fine
M	2	29,91	70	66	45,5		SW	fine
25	7	29,75	61	65	55		S	fine: little rain
	2	29,69	68	67	54		SW	fine. cloudy night
26	7	29,81	64	63	54		W	rain. fine
	2	29,78	66	66	46		SSW	fine. ſhowery eve
27	7	29,69	54,5	63	54	5	W 1	ſhowers
	2	29,77	60.5	65	52	3	WSW 2	ſhowers. thunder ſhower. clear night
28	7	29,83	52,5	62	52,5	3	W 1	
	2	29,93	66	65	48	3	NW 2	
29	7	29,90	51,5	62	51,5	2	W 1	hazy
	2	29,85	64,5	65,5	45	3	WSW 1	hazy. gentle rain at night
30	7	29,81	59	63	57,5	4	SSE 1	hazy. gentle rain at times
	2	29,78	68	67	55	4	S 1	. gentle rain at times
31	7	29,64	61,5	65	62	5	SW 1	chiefly gentle rain: fine
	2	29,62	65,5	67	57,5	3	N 1	. little rain

On-

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* AUGUST 1794.

THE fever of laſt month was of very ſhort duration, it ſcarcely continued to its termination, and very few caſes were met with even at the commencement of this: the other diſeaſes ſtill continued to prevail, diarrhœa was even more frequent, but with a leſs tendency to dyſentery; ſcarlet fever likewiſe continued, but was mild in its ſymptoms. Jaundice was very common, but not accompanied with any peculiarities. Toward the end of the month the ſmallpox became frequent, but was rarely confluent.

On the COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES *of* RICHES *and* POVERTY.

Pauper non eſt, cui rerum ſuppetit uſus. HOR.

RICHES and poverty are two ſubjects, which have been oftener diſcuſſed in moral writings than, perhaps, any that can be mentioned; and the world, it would appear, is ſo perfectly well acquainted with their nature, properties, and uſes, that it would be ſuperfluous, if not preſumptuous, to ſay any thing more on what is ſo well underſtood. But a man's knowledge is not to be eſtimated ſo much from what he underſtands, as what he practiſes; and when I find a man abandoned to wickedneſs, with the ſentiments of virtue in his head, I conclude that he adds ignorance to impudence.

Among the ancient philoſophers and moraliſts one opinion only prevailed, and that was decidedly in favour of poverty. Thoſe who followed them found a certain charm in rags, and many advantages from a total want of the comforts of life. And good reaſon, indeed, had they to be out of conceit with riches. The number of rich men was ſmall, tyrants extorted the wealth of their ſubjects, and warriors plundered defenceleſs nations; but the people did not perceive that theſe men gained any acceſſion of happineſs with their wealth, but, on the contrary, that, as they became the objects of an envious malice, they were ſacrificed to the avarice of a rival, or fell under the ſwords of an oppreſſed and incenſed people. It was not difficult to perſuade men not to love that which very few could acquire, and which, when acquired, brought with it a ſtate of danger and inſecurity, againſt which it was not poſſible to provide. When open force appeared unlikely to ſucceed, aſſaſſination was practiſed, and that with a cunning not eaſily baffled.

As the world grew older, if not wiſer, and as commerce and commercial communications began to be eſtabliſhed between nations, men's notions of wealth and poverty were changed. Even when the propagation of Chriſtianity had made conſiderable progreſs, it was found to be no enemy to a more liberal way of thinking upon this ſubject. It no where prohibits us from acquiring riches, but from abuſing them; and, if we diſcover a preference given to the poor, it was wiſely intended to operate as a perpetual ſource of conſolation to a claſs of men, who, by the conſtitution of the world, are precluded from the power or opportunity of acquiring wealth. It points out the evils which ariſe from riches, and the comforts which the poor may enjoy; and this it does in a way far more ſatisfactory and conſoling, than the dry maxims of the heathen philoſophers could pretend to. In one reſpect only do they agree, in repreſenting the dangers with which wealth is accompanied; but the one refers to theſe as affecting the eternal welfare of the rich man, whereas the other conſiders his perſonal ſafety only in this life.

When we come to conſider the preſen-

ſent ſtate of ſociety, we are obliged to allow a merit to riches of which the ancients were ignorant. The diffuſion of wealth has enlarged the human mind, by the encouragement it has held forth to literature; and this has amply repaid the favour, by diſſeminating thoſe principles of government, which provide for the *external* happineſs of a people. I ſay the *external* happineſs, becauſe I am convinced that no government in the world can do more. The civilization of mankind, their extenſive humanity and benevolence, may all be traced to the period when religion and learning ſpread over the land, that light and knowledge, which produce ſuch virtues. There are now no profeſſed advocates for cruelty and oppreſſion, and thoſe who attempt to practiſe them are the univerſal objects of deteſtation. Men may *politically* differ as to what is oppreſſion or cruelty, but when they come thoroughly to underſtand each other, and to talk of abſtract principles, they perfectly agree in the reſult; and that reſult is favourable to humanity.

Our ideas, therefore, of wealth and poverty have, by the more equal diffuſion of riches, become very much altered. The beſt of men do not reject or deſpiſe the wealth, which they can acquire honeſtly; and no man will be poor and needy who can help it. But, as it is unhappily in the nature of man, when he is intent upon an object, to pay leſs regard to the *means*, than is conſiſtent with integrity, all good and thinking men are cautious of indulging in themſelves, or recommending in others, a deſire to be rich. The progreſs of commerce has been attended with a ſyſtem of fraudulent contrivance, againſt which it is not eaſy to guard; and thoſe tricks and artifices which are very *common*, are too often thought to be very *harmleſs*. Yet in wiſhing to avoid this perverſion of human talents, and this abuſe of an honeſt ambition, we do not recommend the love of poverty, nor contract a liking to rags and want. Poverty in itſelf has nothing to recommend it; it is, in the firſt place, if voluntary, a ſtate of mortification which our religion does not require; and, ſecondly, it prevents us from the exerciſe of thoſe active virtues, which make our fellow-creatures happy; and to do good to others is one of the chief of religious duties.

But a queſtion of very difficult ſolution now comes to be conſidered. What is wealth and what is poverty? In acquiring wealth, when are we to ſtop? In aſſiſting others, whom are we to conſider as poor? Theſe have been accounted puzzling queſtions; and yet I do not know that there is any difficulty in them which is not arbitrary. I am afraid that they who can beſt anſwer them are the leaſt willing. If a man has acquired wealth for the mere purpoſe of accumulation, or to expend upon corrupt and unworthy purpoſes, he has already gone too far. If to enlarge the comforts of his fellow-creatures, and to diffuſe around him thoſe bleſſings which an ingenious and liberal mind is ever deviſing, he cannot go far enough. If, likewiſe, a man has acquired riches by baſe and unworthy means, to whatever uſe he applies them, he has already violated thoſe principles which make riches deſirable. As to what *poverty* is, the queſtion, perhaps, belongs more properly to the legiſlature, who are to provide for the wants of the poor. No man can be conſidered as poor, who is not helpleſs, a definition ſufficiently comprehenſive to include all who are real objects of charity; that is, all thoſe who are aged, ſick, or diſabled from manual operations. To relieve their wants is the duty, not only of individuals, but of ſociety at large; and it is to the honour of this country that ſuch claims are not made in vain. Let the various public ſubſcriptions of the laſt ſix months be a ſtanding proof of the progreſs of humanity.

Some who have, perhaps from not conſidering the queſtion attentively,

been at a loſs to determine what wealth and poverty are, have got rid of the difficulty by fixing upon a middle point, namely, *Contentment*. Agur's prayer is an excellent precedent in this caſe; and contentment is certainly the preciſe point where every wiſe and good man would wiſh to ſtop—if, unfortunately, there were not more diſputes about this than about any other queſtion which can be propoſed. I ſcarcely ever met with two people who were agreed; and the reaſon may be the infinite variety of mens' wants and taſtes. We find men who are apparently content, and who even profeſs that they are, perſiſting in accumulating from day to day, and very ſorry, and very much enraged, if any part of their wealth is taken from them, or if it is diminiſhed by any of thoſe misfortunes to which trade is liable: ſo that it would appear that ſuch men are *content* to gain, but not to loſe. In youth we are very apt to ſay, and ſay with confidence, what portion of riches would content us. As well may a man who is habituating himſelf to drinking, ſay at what quantity he ſhall a few years hence ſtop, and become *regular*. Many a man who has begun with diluting his wine, has arrived at the power of ſwallowing ſpirits with impunity. It is exactly ſo with thoſe who affect to know what wealth will ſatisfy them. No man probably is ſo fooliſh as to expreſs a wiſh that he were worth the fortune of a prince. Yet few men have been ſucceſsful in the acquiſition of riches, who ever conſidered it as ſeriouſly impoſſible not to acquire ſuch a fortune. *Avarus* was once a petty tradeſman, and ſcarcely ſolvent; by a lucky hit, he amaſſed, in a few years, two hundred thouſand pounds. There are now no bounds to his deſires, and, that nothing may obſtruct them, he has effectually ſteeled his heart againſt benevolence and charity, and has acquired a very convenient contempt for that ſtyle of living which might be expected from a man of his fortune. Contentment will never be his portion; and many of thoſe who are reputed poor, merely becauſe they are honeſt and induſtrious, enjoy what he cannot purchaſe with all his wealth. He is ſeldom honoured by *envy*, but always accompanied with contempt.

It is juſt and proper for every man to aim at contentment, but it is, to ſay the leaſt, fooliſh to lay down the portion which will make him content. *He* may be accounted truly content, who will never add to his wealth by any means that are corrupt or fraudulent, and who never ſcruples to ſhare a part of his wealth with the meritorious and the indigent. There is no other ſpecies of contentment which can be deemed ſincere or valuable. All elſe is outſide ſhow, and concealed diſappointment. The other is truly deſirable; it brings peace of mind with it, and it gives to the meaneſt comfort all the zeſt of the moſt extravagant luxury.

So many writers have expatiated on the inefficacy of riches to make men happy, that there is ſcarcely any ſubject ſo trite; for very much of what has been ſaid is mere declamation. If riches add nothing to a man's happineſs, it is his fault if they take any thing from it. Many men of great opulence have been men of great goodneſs: they have been public bleſſings. It is in the unfair means by which riches are acquired, and the ill uſe made of them, that the great objection lies. If we contemplate with diſguſt the character of —— and of ——, let us alſo hold up to imitation and reſpect, the illuſtrious names of a *Graham*, a *Firmin*, a *Barnard*, and a *Thornton*.

There is one obſervation, indeed, which it is painful to make, and yet it would ſcarcely be fair to conceal. Of all the bleſſings incident to human life, wealth is that which has the moſt common tendency to be abuſed. Let this be remembered, with ſerious attention, by thoſe who are eager in the purſuit of it. The diffuſion of great wealth over this nation, has given a colour to its manners which is

not

not very pleaſing. It has abated the confidence of mankind in a ſuperior power. Men no ſooner become what they call rich, than they ſeem to give up every mark of reſpect for the religion of their country. A haughty contempt for public worſhip, and a pert infidelity ſucceed. As a nation, we gain nothing by this. We gain nothing by rejecting that which has procured us the character of a great, humane, and ſolid people. When this ſhall become general, and its influence ſhall have extended to the dependents on the rich, what will then protect us againſt the horrors, which the impiety of a neighbouring nation has brought upon them?

It is this, the too common effect of riches upon the mind, which occaſions, even among well-meaning men, a deſire to ſee a more equal diſtribution of wealth, and to allow of bringing this about by means which every man muſt abhor. But this would not produce a proper effect. The poor, if they are the objects of this affected generoſity, would not be made better by being made more idle. There are few caſes in which a man's induſtry is not adequate to provide for his moſt incumbent wants. But if he is taught that riches are a debt due to him by the ſtate, he can only be rendered diſcontented and diſſolute. Want of contentment with an humble ſtation is the ſource of all thoſe crimes, which the welfare of ſociety requires to be ſeverely puniſhed. Mere poverty ſeldom produces crimes. Joined with idleneſs and diſſipated habits, it is the deſtruction of the individual. In a better ſituation of life, we every day ſee the miſchiefs, which ariſe from an affected imitation of the manners of the great; the real means are wanting, and fraudulent ſpeculation, while it apparently ſupports luxury, is undermining the whole fabric. And as here is no conſolation to be derived from reflecting on what is paſt, we are not to wonder, if men thus infatuated proceed from one ſtep to another, until he who hoped to have lived a life of honour, comes to expiate his crimes by a death of ignominy.

P. T.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IN the Univerſal Magazine for March and May 1794, pages 167 and 334, you have introduced ſome anecdotes from 'A Diſſertation on Anecdotes,' by Mr. D'Iſraeli, the author of 'Curioſities of Literature, in two vol. 8vo.'—In this Diſſertation, the author has introduced a heavy charge againſt Mrs. Macaulay, the late celebrated hiſtorian, of which, I find, you have taken no notice. He thus expreſſes himſelf:

'I ſhall not diſmiſs this topic, without ſeizing the opportunity it affords, of diſcloſing to the public an anecdote which ſhould not have been hitherto concealed from it. When ſome hiſtorians meet with information in favour of thoſe perſonages whom they have choſen to execrate as it were ſyſtematically, they employ forgeries, interpolations, or ſtill more effectual villanies. Mrs. Macaulay when ſhe conſulted the MSS. at the Britiſh Muſeum, was accuſtomed in her hiſtorical reſearches, when ſhe came to any paſſage unfavourable to her party or in favour of the Stuarts to *deſtroy the page* of the MS.! Theſe dilapidations were at length perceived, and ſhe was watched. The Harleian MS. 7379, will go down to poſterity as an eternal teſtimony of her hiſtorical impartiality. It is a collection of ſtate letters. This MS. has three pages entirely torn out; and it has a note ſigned by the principal librarian that on ſuch a day the MS. was delivered to her, and the ſame day the pages were found to be deſtroyed.' Page 69, D'Iſraeli's Diſſertation on Anecdotes.

On examining the No. of the Herleian MS. to which he refers, the following memorandum is to be found:

'12th Nov. 1764, ſent down to Mrs. Macaulay,

(Signed) 'E. MORTON.'

Upon applying to doctor Morton for further information on this ſubject (who is now, I thank God, alive and well) he was kind enough to return the following very ſatisfactory anſwer,

To the Rev. William Graham, No. 72, St. Martin's-lane, Long-acre, London.

Twickenham, Aug. 9, 1794.

'Rev. Sir,

'Having received your letter of the 8th inſtant; and having alſo examined the Harleian manuſcript No. 7379, together with the preſent worthy keeper of the manuſcripts; I find that the note inſerted at the end dated November 12th, 1764, does not contain any evidence that the three leaves wanting at the end were torn out by Mrs. Macaulay; and on the contrary, it rather appears to me, that the ſaid three leaves were *already wanting*, when the manuſcript was ſent down to the reading room, for the uſe of Mrs. Macaulay.

Your obedient ſervant,

(Signed) 'E. MORTON.'

Thus, ſir, I have laid before you a plain ſtatement of facts; and leave it to the public to judge of the candour and impartiality of M. D'Iſraeli.

I am, &c.

A LOVER of JUSTICE.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

TO AUTUMN.

By Mrs. RADCLIFFE.

From her Novel of the Myſteries of Udolpho.

SWEET Autumn! how thy melancholy grace
Steals on my heart, as through theſe ſhades I wind;
Sooth'd by the breathing ſigh, I fondly trace
Each lonely image of the penſive mind.
Lov'd ſcenes, lov'd friends—long loſt! around me riſe,
And wake the melting thought, the tender tear!
That tear, that thought, which more than mirth I prize—
Sweet as the gradual tint, that paints thy year!
Thy farewell ſmile with fond regret I view,
Thy beaming lights, ſoft gliding o'er the woods;
Thy diſtant landſcape, touch'd with yellow hue,
While falls the lengthen'd gleam; thy winding floods,
Now veil'd in ſhade, ſave where the ſkiff's white ſails
Swell to the breeze, and catch thy ſtreaming ray.
But now, e'en now, the partial viſion fails,
And the wave ſmiles, as ſweeps the cloud away;
Emblem of life!—thus chequer'd is its plan;
Thus joy ſucceeds to grief—thus ſmiles the varied man!

ADDRESS TO POESY.

NURSE of each thought erect and bold,
Sweet poeſy, whoſe fervid fire
Prompted the genuine ſons of old,
With happieſt hands, to ſweep the lyre;
Parent of virtue! haſte along,
Like them inſtruct me o'er the liſtening throng,
From paſſion's flood, to pour the torrent of the ſong.

How blythe the ſeaſon when, of yore,
Crowding around the wintry blaze,
I learnt the legendary lore
Of the grey goſſip's tragic lays.
Oh tell! what mightier ſtrain can now,
Make the rapt ſoul with ſuch emotion glow,
Or bid the bounding blood with equal vigour flow?

Wandering, I mourn'd the buried brave,
Careleſs of night's unſocial noon,
When ſlept upon the glimmering wave,
The ſplendour of the ſummer's moon.

Ah, happy days! ſerene and clear!
In memory's flattering glaſs your charms appear
Ting'd with the richeſt blooms of life's inconſtant year.

But ah! ye viſions of delight!
Too faſt your tarniſh'd ſplendor fades!
Ye ſink! ye vaniſh from my ſight!
While factions deep and dreary ſhades
Deſcend, while freedom, wan with care,
Flies from the hoſtile roof, with ſcatter'd hair,
And fetter'd genius comes her gloomy grief to ſhare.

Hiſtory, thy doleful valves unfold,
Bring forth the great of every age,
In blood their goary garments roll'd,
The martyrs of imperial rage.
The ſervile chain, the rod of power,
With baleful influence, blaſt the muſe's bower,
They haſte to happier climes, and ſhun th' oppreſſive hour.

'Twas thus, when Greece in ruin laid,
Proſtrate, beneath the tyrant's arm,
They ſought Auſonian freedom's ſhade,
Each breaſt with patriot paſſions warm.
Albion, they linger round thine iſles,
Wiſhful, they gaze her fane where virtue piles,
And, o'er th' Atlantic waſte, a new creation ſmiles.

Let Europe, Cam, with hideous mien,
Light perſecution's frightful fire,
Amid the general ſtorm ſerene,
Bid thou the new-born thought aſpire.
Let not thine hand its courſe controul,
Unbounded bid the ſeas of ſcience roll;
Nor bind, in ſlavery's chain, the bold the vigorous ſoul.

Why ſhould the gloom of antient years
O'ercloud the day-ſpring of the mind?
In youth renew'd, diſpel thy fears,
And caſt the wither'd ſlough behind.
Amid mortality's dear maze,
From hope's high cliff, let virtue's beacons blaze,
And, up perfection's ſteep, thine eye inſatiate raiſe.

Wherever truth and reaſon meet,
Wherever worth, deſerted, ſtrays,
Do thou afford a generous ſeat,
And claſp them, with a friend's embrace.
Thine be the truly liberal plan,
And, dauntleſs, in the philoſophic van,
Aſſert, with ſteady zeal, the dignity of man.

NIGHT: A POEM.

NOW the ſun forſake the ſkies,
See! his ſanguine fluſh of light,
And the owl with booting cries
Hails the ebon car of night.

From yon tow'r with ivy crown'd,
Mark!—the bats with filmy wings
Dart abrupt—in mazes round,
Flittering light in airy rings.

Lo! what awful ruddy flame
All the mountain's ſummit fires!
'Tis the moon's reſplendent beam—
Quick the twilight gloom retires.

Thro' the village hamlets born
Ruſh lights glimmer here and there,
Weary ploughmen home return
To partake their frugal fare;

Honeſt Tray with joy elate
Steps before in conſcious pride,
Puſs againſt the wicket gate
Purring rubs her furry ſide.

See! acroſs the moon-light glade
How the timid ſchool-boy flies,
While the aſpin's quiv'ring ſhade
Seems a goblin to his eyes!

Calm beneath the humble cot,
Free from pain or care his breaſt,
Labour, and content his lot,
The ruſtic takes his quiet reſt.

Now o'er hill, and dale, and grove,
Night her miſty mantle flings;
Forms fantaſtic ſeem to move
On the ſhad'wy face of things.

Silence now the ſtill hours leads,
Save where winds the gurgling ſtream,
As it burſts from deepeſt ſhades
Glitt'ring in the lunar beam.

Where high ſwell'd the mountain hoar
In the flaming eye of noon,
Now but ſeems a dim contour
By the pale light of the moon;

Lo! among yon gems of night
Moves her cloudleſs orb ſerene;
While a flood of gleamy light
Silvers o'er the ſoften'd ſcene.

Hark! what harſh and ſhrilly noiſe
Thro' the ſtillneſs hurts the ear;
'Tis the cock—whoſe cheery voice
Loud proclaims the morning near.

Now the welcome glimpſe of day
Strikes the ſpangled upland lawn,
And the moon's declining ray
Glimmers faintly thro' the dawn.

You

Yon eaſtern cloud of crimſon dye
Mark! how glorious to behold!
As the morn with lucid eye
Tips the rocky cliffs with gold.

Vapours riſing from the ſea
Purple mountains ſeem—afar,
Twilight with his robes of gray
Slowly veils the morning ſtar.

Lo! the lark with ſpeckled breaſt
(Now the jocund day's begun)
Springing from his dewy neſt,
Soars to hail the riſing ſun.

ODE to FRIENDSHIP.

HAIL! Friendſhip hail, thou ſource divine,
Whence copious ſtreams of pleaſure flow,
Inſpiring every heart benign
With all thy honeſt warmth to glow;
Not vain thy power; for where extends thy ſway,
Unſullied honour o'er the heart preſides;
Vice from thy preſence ſhrinks abaſh'd away,
And white-rob'd Virtue all thy actions guides;
Her beaming ſceptre caſts thy holy ſpell;
And in the circle all the moral graces dwell.

Oh! bleſt irradiation mild,
To cheer us on our weary way,
Whether through gloomy deſarts wild,
Or vales which fancy paints we ſtray;
For where each brilliant pointed beam extends,
The effects of vice no more diſturb the mind
Illumined; but ſhe cheerly onward bends,
With rapture, permanent, as great, to find
At thy pure cryſtal fount, without controul,
The feaſt of reaſon, and the flow of ſoul.

Scowling indignant round the ſcene,
Her devious tracks full fraught with woe,
Miſfortune moves with pallid mien,
Around, her venom'd ſhafts to throw;
And where ſhe moves will friendſhip eager preſs,
With pity's tear ſoft-trembling in her eye,
To ſooth the ruffling gales of grief, and bleſs
The darkening gloom with rays of conſtancy;
Kindly the lengthened roll of ills to ſhare;
At laſt, to ſteal the ſting from heart-corroding care.

So when the tempeſt-driven car
Old Winter mounts, with rapid pace
Around to ſpread deſtructive war
O'er nature's animated ſpace;
Haply ſoft peering midſt ſome ſnow-fringed vale,
An ever-green may charm the wanderer's eye,
That braves the fury of the paſſing gale,
Till on its bloom the ſummer's breath ſhall ſigh;
Waving its green leaves in the ſun-ſhine hour,
That withered not, aſſailed by winter's ruthleſs power.

ODE on ſeeing a NEGRO-FUNERAL.

MAHALI dies! O'er yonder plain
His bier is borne: the ſable train
By youthful virgins led:
Daughters of injur'd Afric, ſay
Why raiſe ye thus th' heroic lay,
Why triumph o'er the dead?

No tear bedews their fixed eye:
'Tis now the hero lives, they cry;
Releas'd from ſlav'ry's chain:
Beyond the billowy ſurge he flies,
And joyful views his native ſkies,
And long-loſt bowers again.

On Koromantyn's palmy ſoil
Heroic deeds and martial toil
Shall fill each glorious day;
Love, fond and faithful, crown thy nights,
And bliſs unbought, unmix'd delights,
Paſt cruel wrongs repay.

Nor lordly pride's ſtern avarice there,
Alone ſhall nature's bounties ſhare;
To all her children free.—
For thee, the dulcet Reed ſhall ſpring,
His balmy bowl the Cocoa bring,
The Anana bloom for thee.

The thunder hark! 'Tis Afric's God,
He wakes, he lifts th' avenging rod,
And ſpeeds th' impatient hours;
From Niger's golden ſtream he calls;
Fair Freedom comes,—Oppreſſion falls;
And vengeance yet is ours!

Now, Chriſtian, now, in wild diſmay,
Of Afric's proud revenge the prey,
Go roam th' affrighted wood;
Transform'd to tigers, fierce and fell,
Thy race ſhall prowl with ſavage yell,
And glut their rage for blood!

But ſoft,—beneath yon tam'rind ſhade,
Now let the hero's limbs be laid;
Sweet ſlumbers bleſs the brave:
There ſhall the breezes ſhed perfume,
Nor livid lightnings blaſt the bloom
That decks Mahali's grave.

TO MY PICTURE.

Written by a LADY, on preſenting her Pictures to ſome Friends.

WHILE I through chequer'd paths, with anxious breaſt,
Now ſad, now cheerful, wind my weary way;
'Tis thine, bleſt ſhade, in one dear ſpot to reſt,
Nor from the ſoft retreat deſire to ſtray.

In that abode of Innocence and Truth,
The mild domeſtic Virtues love to dwell;
There ſport the Graces of unſullied youth,
There Friendſhip, pleas'd, erects her magic ſpell.

There, through ſucceſſive years, diſplay thy bloom,
Thou gay reſemblance of this fading face;
Which Time will lead, relentleſs, to the tomb,
Long ere he leave on thee a ſingle trace.

While I, perhaps, in diſtant climes may rove,
Oft ſhall my Fanny fix her eyes on thine;
On thee ſhall turn with looks of cordial love,
Thoſe beams where ſweetneſs and expreſſion ſhine.

A tender glance, Auguſta, too, ſhall dart,
As of her abſent friend ſhe fondly ſpeaks;
And, while affection kindles at her heart,
A warmer bluſh ſhall paint her glowing cheeks.

Go, ſmiling ſhadow, and enjoy thy lot;
May ſcenes of tranquil bliſs ſtill meet thine eyes;
Content ſtill hover o'er the favour'd ſpot,
And brighteſt years, in long ſucceſſion riſe.

STANZAS written at the SHRINE of BERTHA.

[From the Shrine of Bertha, a Novel, by Miſs Robinſon.]

PLEAS'D with the calm bewitching hour,
When Evening ſhadows o'er the plain,
I ſeek my ſolitary bow'r,
And liſten to the night owl's ſtrain!

Here, where the woven ivy hangs,
Once the rich ſhrine of marble roſe!
And chaſte-ey'd veſtals ſigh'd their pangs,
And bath'd with icy tears their woes.

And here, where on the rugged ground
The ſculptur'd fragments ſcatter'd lie,
Erſt did the choral anthem ſound,
And holy incenſe meet the ſky.

What are ye now? ye arches drear?
What can ye ſhew to ſooth the breaſt?
Save penſive twilight's frequent tear,
That falls in cryſtal luſtre dreſt?

Yet o'er the ſcene of rude decay
Blithe nature darts the morning beam!
And here the bluſhing evening ray,
Inſpires the ſoul with fancy's dream!

And here wan Cynthia ſheds her light,
The ſhatter'd roofs and walls among;
And here the ſolemn hour of night,
Is chear'd by Philomela's ſong!

And here the pilgrim, poor and ſad,
No kindred ſmile his breaſt to warm,
May find what cruel foes forbad,
A ſhelter from the howling ſtorm!

Blow, blow ye keen, ye ruthleſs winds,
Ye livid lightnings dart around!
While terror freezes guilty minds,
And conſcience owns the cureleſs wound!

Here can I view, unchill'd with dread,
The lofty aiſle and ſhad'wy dome;
The turrets, tottering o'er the dead;
The long-drawn monumental gloom?

Where, ſtill, without one holy rite,
The hapleſs Bertha's form ſhall ſleep!
While bluſhing rigour ſhrinks from light,
And melancholy hides—to weep.

With ſuperſtition gliding round,
A thouſand ghaſtly ſhades ſhall gleam;
While o'er the dew-beſprinkled ground,
Steals the faint moon's retiring beam:

Yet, hither ſhall the red-breaſt bring
The lily and the paleſt roſe;
And all the faireſt flow'rs of ſpring,
To dreſs her bed—of long repoſe.

Oh! gentle bird! no wand'rer rude
Shall bid thee from theſe ruins flee;
Bleſt minſtrel of this ſolitude!
Still ſhalt thou ſing—to ſolace me.

PRO-

PROCEEDINGS *of the Fourth* SESSION *of the Seventeenth Parliament of* Great Britain, *continued from Page* 131.

ON Thurſday, April 3, in the houſe of commons, the chancellor of the exchequer preſented a bill to enable the ſubjects of France to enliſt as ſoldiers in regiments to ſerve on the continent of Europe, and certain other places, and to enable his majeſty to grant commiſſions, as officers, to ſubjects of that country in the ſaid corps.

The chancellor of the exchequer then moved for leave to bring in a bill for the better management of the landed revenues of the crown, which was agreed to.

Mr. Harriſon next roſe, and prefaced a motion reſpecting ſinecure places, &c. by obſerving, that miniſters ſtood forward in calling on the people to ſubſcribe voluntarily in ſupport of a war, in which, they profeſſed, not only the exiſtence of the conſtitution was involved, but all that was dear to the nation as a civil ſociety. He would now afford theſe gentlemen an opportunity of contributing amply on their part, and, if they did, it would convince the country of their ſincerity in the cauſe, and have the beſt effect in promoting the ſubſcriptions, and the general zeal of the people. The object of his motion was, that thoſe who held offices, ſinecure places, and penſions, ſhould contribute a part thereof, in certain proportions, to the public ſervice, during the continuance of the war. In 1691, a meaſure, nearly ſimilar, was adopted by that houſe, on the motion of admiral Ruſſel. What he would propoſe was, that all efficient ſituations producing a nett income of 500l. per annum, and upward, ſhould be liable to a deduction of one fourth of their nett produce; that all ſinecure places and penſions, exceeding 200l. per annum, (except thoſe which were obviouſly given as a reward for meritorious ſervice) ſhould be liable to a deduction of half their amount; and that the amount of all penſions and ſinecure places, poſſeſſed by ſuch as at the ſame time held any efficient place, ſhould be wholly allotted to the public ſervice, reſerving at the ſame time the ſtipend which may be paid to a deputy, for any neceſſary trifling duty in the latter inſtance. He concluded with moving, 'for leave for a bill to appropriate certain proportions of the emoluments of ſinecure and efficient places and penſions to a certain amount, to the public ſervice during the war, at the diſpoſal of parliament.'

Mr. Coke (of Norfolk) ſeconded the motion, which he particularly recommended, as a means of alleviating the burdens of the poor, who in the county he repreſented were increaſed to a conſiderable degree, particularly in Norwich, where, on account of the war, there were upward of 15,000 manufacturers out of employ.

The principal opponent of the motion was Mr. Burke, who cenſured it; firſt, as a ridiculous project; ſecondly, as a mean and contemptible one; thirdly, as being on a fallacious ground; and laſtly, as not tending to relieve, but to delude the people. It would not, in the event, amount to the 'purchaſe of ſmall beer for the poor of Norwich, at one night's ſupper; and it had a tendency to inſpire the people with diſſatisfactory ideas of the preſent mode of government, under which they enjoyed ſo much practical proſperity. The labours of thoſe who held efficient places in the public ſervice were known but to few, and were too poorly paid. Such a proceeding, by ſapping the foundations of a legal tenure (as all places under the crown were) would go to ſet a precedent, which may end in the deſtruction of all property whatever.

Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he had rather incur the imputation of being a daring man, than paſs over in ſilence the obſervations of a right hon. gentleman (Mr. Burke) whoſe apoſtacy and inconſiſtency were never more conſpicuous than on the preſent ſubject. The right hon. gentleman, it was but charitable to ſuppoſe, had forgotten his recorded opinion, or he certainly would not have rebuked the hon. member who had agitated this queſtion. The journals of the houſe contained a remonſtrance of his againſt the extravagance of the executive government. In the bill known by 'Burke's Bill for Oeconomical Reform,' that right hon. gentleman did take upon him to mete and meaſure out the rewards, for different ſervices. To ſay, that his majeſty had a right to laviſh on court favourites the revenues of the country, was a doctrine ſo prepoſterous, that he could never ſubſcribe to it. It bore no analogy to a private family, where a maſter had a right to reward his ſervants with his own money, accordidg to their deſerts. In the other caſe, the money came from the people, and could be levied only through the medium of their repreſentatives. During the American war, the right hon. gen-

gentleman maintained that the influence of the crown was ſo great, that members could be bribed from their duty, and that, if this preponderance in the ſcale of royalty was not the immediate cauſe of the war, it was at leaſt the cauſe of its duration.—Here Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he had not made out an eſtimate of the produce of ſuperfluous places; but the conſtituents of an hon. member muſt be precious ſwillers indeed, if it did not ſupply them with ſmall beer. To prove the fallacy of that aſſertion, he would inſtance the late auditor of the exchequer, who, without performing any adequate ſervice, amaſſed a fortune of at leaſt half a million ſterling; the warden of the Cinque Ports, the clerk of the parliament, the treaſurer of the navy, the juſtice general of Scotland, &c. who, if they are ſincere in their declarations, reſpecting the juſtice and neceſſity of the war, will not ſurely grudge to contribute a little for the preſervation of the whole. An hon. gentleman (Mr. Drake) who had always a climax beyond a climax, had contributed only 50l. for the preſervation of religion, morality, rationality, and *vitality* itſelf.—Mr. Sheridan then entered on a long inveſtigation of the finances of the country. He called upon the miniſter to ſtate when the revenue was to meet the actual expenditure. After a ten years peace, that boaſted ſeaſon of jubilee had not arrived, and he might ſay with confidence, that on that day the ſun would never riſe.

Mr. Roſe pointed out a material diſtinction between the Oeconomical bill and the propoſition now before the houſe. The latter had a tendency to deprive thouſands of their lawful property, and to involve them in irretrievable ruin. The former made an adequate compenſation for the deprivation of emoluments, which, at that ſeaſon of univerſal calamity, were deemed ſuperfluous. The hon. gentleman next enumerated the advantages which had been produced by the oeconomical bill. It deſtroyed the ſources of corruption: it cut off all redundancies: it precluded the poſſibility of applying a ſingle ſhilling of the public money to ſiniſter purpoſes, and it meliorated the ſtate of affairs ſo much, that, in 1781, the penſion liſt exceeded 310,000l. but at preſent it was below 68,000l. ſo that there was a deduction of 42,000l. in favour of the revenue. Mr. Roſe then entered into a minute ſtatement of all the emoluments annexed to efficient ſituations, and concluded by obſerving that, if this ſyſtem of finance were to be adopted, it would extend with equal juſtice to barriſters, phyſicians, *managers of theatres*, and even to a perſon who went about the country with a puppet ſhow on his back.

Mr. Fox conceived that the motion, as it now ſtood, entrenched ſomewhat on the ſacredneſs of property. He admitted, that though it was not conſiſtent with the prerogative of the crown to grant indiſcriminately, and *ad libitum*, ſinecure places and penſions, yet in all legal grants it was competent in the granter to beſtow and for the accepter to receive: in ſuch caſes the emolument attached to the appointment was perſonal and ſacred property. If the bill were ſuffered to go into a committee, he intended to introduce a clauſe excepting every perſon who had a legal title veſted in him by a legal grant. He next commented on the monopoly of places in the ſecretaries of ſtate, and reprobated the mode of applying part of their ſalaries, which decency induced them to remit, to the civil liſt, and not to the ſervice of the public. This mode of application procured undue influence to the miniſters of the crown, and was a manœuvre and a contrivance to delude the people.

The chancellor of the exchequer went into all the various reſources of the country, in order to ſhew that the motion, if even adopted, was comparatively unneceſſary, that the revenue was on the increaſe, and that whatever ſums were borrowed to ſupport the preſent war, funds were ſet apart to extinguiſh that debt.

Mr. Sheridan roſe to explain. He remarked with a great deal of good humour and perſonal dignity, on ſome expreſſions which had fallen from Mr. Roſe, with reſpect to his own (Mr. Sheridan's) property.

Mr. Burke alſo explained. He declared that the houſe of commons, in its cenſorial and inquiſitorial capacity, was paramount to every grievance in the ſtate.

Mr. Harriſon ſaid, he perceived the drift of the arguments brought forward againſt his motion was, that the ſum to be raiſed, if the bill ſhould paſs into a law, would be inconſiderable: be it ſo, penſioners and placemen ſhould have the leſs objection to it: they would feel it the leſs, and it would have a good effect on the country at large: it would be a good example, and ſerve, in ſome meaſure, to prove, that when penſioners and placemen talked of preſerving the conſtitution, they did not mean their penſions and places; and that while they were prepared to lay

burdens

burdens on others, they did not want to ſcreen themſelves, or in other words, to throw it off their own ſhoulders on thoſe of others.

Mr. Huſſey ſaid, he was convinced that penſions and places could not be ranked as private property, and that no man could lay the ſame claim to them that he could to a freeholder; and as it was ſtated by Mr. Pitt, and others who ſpoke on his ſide, that the reſources of the country were ſuch as to render a reſort to thoſe places and penſions unneceſſary; the very ſame argument would apply to benevolences, and he was ſure the tax propoſed to be laid on theſe places and penſions would produce very near as much as would be found to reſult from thoſe voluntary ſubſcriptions. He had heard Mr. Pitt with much pleaſure deliver a very ſplendid account of the flouriſhing ſtate of our finance, but could any man in his ſenſes ſuppoſe, if the war continued, that this country, in addition to the parmanent taxes, could afford to pay twelve or fifteen millions a year, and that year after year?

The queſtion being loudly called for, the motion was put, and negatived by 117 to 48.

On Thurſday, April 10, Major Maitland roſe to make his promiſed motion on the ſubject of the late campaign. He contended, that it was very far from being (what miniſters had ſo repeatedly aſſerted it to be) a ſucceſsful one, and that the ſituation of the allied powers on the continent was at preſent infinitely worſe than at the commencement of the war. Some partial advantages in the earlier part of the war, he admitted, had taken place; they were brilliant and deluſive, but not ſolid, acquiſitions.

But thoſe parts of the campaign, to which he principally meant to call the attention of the houſe, were thoſe operations, the plan of which apparently originated in the Britiſh cabinet, and had been atchieved for the moſt part by the forces of this country. He alluded to the affairs of Dunkirk and Toulon, and with reſpect to each of theſe he heſitated not to ſay, that no ſmall degree of cenſure was imputable to the miniſters of this country. With reſpect to Dunkirk, a conſiderable delay had unneceſſarily taken place between the capture of Valenciennes and the commencement of the ſiege of the former. The force allotted was ſhamefully inadequate; and, above all, the fatal omiſſion in not having the ordnance ſtores, and a protecting ſquadron before Dunkirk, evinced the moſt unpardonable neglect of the miniſters at the head of theſe departments.

Adverting to the buſineſs of Toulon, he cenſured the whole of it from the moment of lord Hood's taking poſſeſſion of it, by virtue of treaty, until its ſhameful evacuation by the allied forces. He expatiated on the folly of taking poſſeſſion of a place which was fifteen miles in circuit, and contained eight poſts, all neceſſary to the preſervation of the place, with a force of 1800 men, when it was found afterward to be untenable with 15,000. He cenſured the conduct of the commanders, in not taking ſteps (when they knew they could not retain the place) to deſtroy the whole fleet and ſtores, and to bring off all the loyal inhabitants, the greater part of whom were ſo inhumanly left to be butchered by the republicans. The event of this affair, he contended, was equally injurious to the common cauſe, and diſgraceful to the Britiſh name.

He concluded by moving, 'That a committee of the whole houſe be appointed to enquire into the cauſes which led to the failure of the enterpriſe againſt Dunkirk: and alſo of thoſe which led to the evacuation of Toulon, by the forces under major-general Dundas and lord Hood.'

Mr. Sheridan ſeconded the motion.

Mr. Jenkinſon contended, that the iſſue of the late campaign, taking a general view of all the circumſtances, was eminently ſucceſsful; that the enterpriſe againſt Dunkirk miſcarried by a remarkably unfavourable coincidence of circumſtances, particularly the aſtoniſhing exertions made by the French to augment their force in that quarter; and that not the leaſt blame was imputable to thoſe who either planned or conducted the affair. However, the miſcarriage was amply compenſated for by the capture of Queſnoy, to which the diverſion was principally inſtrumental.

With reſpect to the affair of Toulon, he inſiſted, that every thing which prudence could dictate, or vigour execute, had been done there; and he had authority for ſaying, that every individual who was willing to leave the place had been brought away. He contended, that with the preſent ſyſtem of government in France, we could not have the ſecurity of peace even for an hour; and that its downfal was not ſo very improbable as ſome gentlemen ſeemed to imagine.

Were this country, ſaid he, to make peace with France under the circumſtance exiſting at preſent in that unhappy coun-

try, inevitable deſtruction would fall upon the head of the perſon there that ſhould conclude it. All the anarchy, and confuſion that diſtracted France, flowed from the jacobin club. It was the object of that club, ever ſince the deſtruction of federaliſm, to extend their influence to ſeveral correſponding clubs throughout the country. In the execution of this, the jacobin club took ſpecial care never to veſt any of thoſe inferior clubs with ſupreme authority, but to make them uniformily dependent. Hence he argued, that if the jacobin club were once deſtroyed, the ſeveral inferior and dependent clubs, from the circumſtance of their being ſo numerous, would not immediately agree in any one object round which they might rally. It was generally allowed that the influence of the capital in every country was very great, but in no one country was it ſo great as in France at the preſent day. It had been advanced that the people were leſs diſpoſed to inſurrection now, than they were during the laſt campaign. But, from his own knowledge he was ready to declare, that the ſpirit of inſurrection was as great, at the preſent day, as it was laſt year in the three greateſt cities next to Paris, namely, Lyons, Marſeilles, and Bourdeaux.—In his opinion, the beſt mode of carrying on the campaign, was to make ourſelves maſters of ſeveral poſts in the Low Countries, ſo as to ſecure the marching forward of the combined powers into the interior of France. He had no difficulty in ſaying, that the marching to Paris was practicable; and he would recommend ſuch an expedition. While the preſent ſyſtem exiſted in France, the enemy had only one advantage over us, namely, the power of bringing a ſuperior force to any one place. But on our ſide there remained many conſiderable and peculiar advantages: we not only excelled the enemy in ſtrict military diſcipline, but in the ſuperior force of our cavalry. In the preſent diſorganized ſtate of France, it was impoſſible that ſhe could raiſe cavalry as eaſily as infantry. During the latter part of the laſt campaign, the cavalry of the combined powers, owing to local circumſtances, had been of very little ſervice. The moment that the poſts that enſured ſafety to the marching forward of the combined powers were ſecured in the Low Countries, at that very time the cavalry could be brought to act with very conſiderable advantage. Under the diſadvantages that he had before ſtated, Valenciennes and Queſnoy fell before the victorious arms of the combined powers. There was every proſpect of ſucceſs in the next campaign. The valour of the Britiſh troops was diſtinguiſhed in the laſt, as it ever had been in every campaign. He would leave the French to exult on account of the battle of Jemappe, where, *mirabile dictu!* 60,000 Frenchmen defeated, though with conſiderable difficulty, 27,000 Auſtrians. At the ſame time he need not mention the battle that was fought at a certain place (Lincelles) where 1500 Britiſh troops cut to pieces 5000 Frenchmen. In a word, ſince we had, during the courſe of the laſt campaign, defended Holland, captured Queſnoy, Valenciennes, and Condé, recovered the Low Countries, and almoſt crippled the French navy, he could not be convinced that there was the leaſt ground for the motion.

Lord Mulgrave entered into a defence of the plans that had been formed by adminiſtration, and into an able deſcription of the meaſures that had been taken to retain Toulon, and concluded with ſaying, he had not the leaſt doubt, but that, if all the garriſon at Toulon had conſiſted of Britiſh troops, the place would have been in our poſſeſſion at this day.

Sir James Murray entered into a detail of the operations in the Netherlands, in the courſe of the campaign. He ſhewed the importance of preſerving a ſtrong barrier againſt France on that ſide, both on the principles of ſecurity and ſelf-defence; and pointed out the importance of Dunkirk, as conſtituting a part of that important object. He then entered into a detail of the cauſes of the failure of that expedition, which, he ſaid, was not to be aſcribed either to the miſconduct of adminiſtration or of the duke of York, but to the ſingular and unexpected meaſure which the convention had adopted for raiſing the people in a maſs.

Mr. Fox ſaid, that he had not yet heard any intelligent arguments againſt going into an inquiry. Without entering into any particular inquiry as to the degree of protection afforded to the people on the evacuation of Toulon, he could only ſay, that if all thoſe who were diſpoſed to leave it, had been removed, the bitterest ingredient in our bad fortune had there been removed. The rumours which had been circulated as to the negligence or miſconduct of our allies during our keeping poſſeſſion of that place, was another reaſon for going into an inquiry; for if they were diſcovered to be careleſs in this inſtance, what dependence could we have upon them

in future? And, therefore, on the ground of general policy, this motion ought to be adopted.

The chancellor of the exchequer ſaid, that he could not help feeling ſome degree of ſatisfaction, in diſcovering that neither of the expeditions, an inquiry into which had been propoſed, had been excluſively Britiſh; and thoſe enterprizes which had been conducted by our forces alone, had formed no part of the propoſed inveſtigation. The hon. gentleman had totally forgotten our ſucceſs at Pondicherry, Tobago, and Newfoundland, under the auſpices of the Britiſh arms alone; and the probable reſult of thoſe operations which were at preſent going forward in the Weſt Indies; and ſo far as theſe came under review, his obſervation would appear to be totally unfounded. The houſe would therefore judge, whether an inquiry into the failures at Dunkirk and Toulon was a fair and equitable criterion by which to judge of the diſgrace we had incurred, or the glory we had acquired in the campaign? He confeſſed, that he would have been much diſpoſed to be alarmed at the melancholy forebodings of the hon. gentleman, had not experience now taught him to diſregard theſe ebullitions of querulous eloquence. More particularly was he emboldened to ſlight the remarks which the hon. gentleman had now made, when he recollected he had uſed the ſame deſponding language as to the late war in India, which, notwithſtanding his predictions, had been brought to ſo brilliant and beneficial a concluſion. He had uniformly been of opinion, that it was improper to inſtitute inquiries into the conduct of the executive government in time of war; and from what had been already ſaid by his hon. friends, it had appeared no ſuch inquiry was requiſite. Several other gentlemen ſpoke; after which the houſe divided, when the motion was negatived by 168 to 35.

In the houſe of lords on Friday April 11, lord Grenville having moved that the volunteer corps bill ſhould be read a ſecond time, the marquis of Lanſdown ſaid that the miniſters having laid before the houſe the circular letters of 1782, he would now prove the total difference which exiſted between that and the preſent plan. The letter which he had ſent in 1782, was for the purpoſe of obtaining information from different parts of the country, and a great deal of valuable information was obtained by it. The plan ſubmitted to the people in his letter, was not that they ſhould ſubſcribe money, but arm themſelves, and perform their exerciſe at the moſt convenient time. By the plan of 1782, the officers were to be appointed by the chief magiſtrates of the various towns, &c. In the preſent inſtance, the officers were to be appointed by the king, through the medium of the lord lieutenant —a circumſtance which did not add to the popularity of the meaſure. It was ſaid that this was a voluntary ſubſcription; but it required no great judgment to know that a ſubſcription recommended by his majeſty's miniſters would come to many perſons preſſed ſo ſtrongly that they could not refuſe: their power, patronage, and influence were too extenſive to admit of much free-will in a conſiderable part of the kingdom. If there ſhould happen to be a man of public character and eminence, and that man ſhould poſſeſs a theatre, how eaſy was it for any cunning man in the ſervice of adminiſtration to threaten him with a tax upon that ſpecies of property. He concluded with hoping that ſome noble lord would move a clauſe, to make it legal to enter into ſubſcriptions of this nature.

Lord Grenville ſaid, that the miniſters by no means founded their defence of this bill upon its ſimilarity to the meaſure of 1782: on the contrary, they defended it upon great conſtitutional principles: they defended it upon the opinions of lord Coke, lord Hardwicke, and lord Mansfield, and upon the univerſal ſyſtem of conduct adopted by every miniſter ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family to the throne: but, if it were neceſſary, he could prove that that meaſure was perfectly ſimilar, in point of principle, with the meaſure which the noble marquis himſelf brought forward; for, though there was not the word *money* to be found in the letter of 1782, yet the people were called upon to arm themſelves, which could not be done without money; and ſo the perſons to whom that letter was ſent underſtood it, becauſe they actually entered into ſubſcriptions in conſequence of it.

But the noble marquis had contended, that miniſters could enforce their requeſts by means of their influence and power, and had inſtanced a caſe of a gentleman who owned a theatre. That was an unfortunate inſtance for the argument of the noble marquis, becauſe notwithſtanding that threat, the miniſtry did not expect any ſubſcription from that quarter, although a ſubſcription might be in contemplation for that gentleman himſelf. His

lordſhip concluded with obſerving, that it would be extremely hard if the people of this country were not at liberty to ſubſcribe in defence of their laws, properties, and religion.

Lord Lauderdale contended, that the preſent miniſters had means of enforcing their requeſts for ſubſcriptions in a way that no other miniſters ever had, becauſe, excluſive of their patronage, they had a print, of their own, in which they could enforce their propoſitions. The noble ſecretary of ſtate had alluded to a ſubſcription, meaning, he ſuppoſed, a ſubſcription which had lately taken place. He did not expect to hear the noble lord countenance, in ſuch a manner, the calumnies which in the miniſterial print had been circulated upon that ſubject. His lordſhip then entered into a long panegyric upon the character of the gentleman for whom that ſubſcription had been entered into; and ſaid it was a mark of approbation for a life ſpent in the ſervice of his country.

The duke of Leeds ſaid, he thought that neither the letter of 1782, nor that of 1794, was cenſurable. With reſpect to that of 1782, he thought the arguments had been carried too far, when it was ſaid, that calling upon the people to arm, amounted to a demand of ſubſcription: for, if carried ſo far, a right to demand money might be ſaid to accompany the king's undoubted authority to raiſe an army.

After ſome other lords had ſpoken, the queſtion on the bill was put, and carried without a diviſion.

On Friday, April 14, on the queſtion for the ſpeaker's leaving the chair for going into a committee on the French Corps bill, colonel Tarleton roſe, and oppoſed the principle of the bill; which was, he aſſerted, a link of that chain forged by miniſters againſt the conſtitution, of which the military aſſociations and the county ſubſcriptions were a part.

Sir W. Young agreed with the hon. gentleman, that the preſent bill was a link of that chain of which the aſſociations and ſubſcriptions formed a part, but that it was to defend both the conſtitution and country, and not to injure either.

Mr. Whitbread jun. inſiſted, that no adequate reaſon was yet given why the bill was introduced. It was part of a ſyſtem of miniſters to attempt to reſtore the ancient deſpotiſm in France; and government had it in its power to compel all the French in this kingdom to enliſt, by the terror of the Alien bill. He conſidered the meaſure not only as unconſtitutional, but cruel to the greateſt degree, in urging men to go into battle with halters about their neck; and he would aſk if retaliation were intended, when thoſe men were hanged by the conventional troops? If it were, what a ſcene of carnage it muſt produce! The unlimited power given to the crown over this army might be of the moſt dangerous tendency; as it might prove an inſtrument in the hands of a wicked government, to betray all veſtiges of liberty among the people.

Lord Mulgrave, in reply to what the hon. gentleman had ſaid about the danger of retaliation, obſerved, that if we ſuffered ourſelves to be awed by ſuch apprehenſions, we had better never go to war at all; for when an enemy ſaw ſuch fears appear, it would certainly take advantage of them. Many of this deſcription of Frenchmen were taken by the enemy in the ſorties from Toulon, but he never could learn that they were put to death; if he knew that they were, he did not heſitate to ſay, that it was his intention to have hung up his priſoners, man for man.

Major Maitland deprecated the noble lord's idea of retaliation.

Mr. M. Montagu, Mr. J. T. Stanley, and Mr. Eaſt, ſpoke in ſupport of the bill.

Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he reprobated the meaſure ſo much, that he would take the ſenſe of the houſe in every ſtage of it.

The queſtion being called for, the houſe divided, when there appeared for the ſpeaker's leaving the chair 131, and againſt it 28.

The houſe then, after diſpoſing of the bill in a committee, adjourned.

On Friday, April 17, on the third reading of the French Corps Bill, Mr. Harriſon objected to it as veſting an unuſual power in the crown, and being dangerous to the country in caſe of an invaſion, as theſe men might ſacrifice our intereſts, to make their peace with the invaders.

Mr. Fox repeated ſeveral objections which he had urged on a former night; adding, that this bill went to extend the war to an indefinite length, and without any proſpect of a happy termination.

Mr. Dundas was of a contrary opinion: he thought the bill was the moſt likely ſpeedily to terminate the war, and to obtain an honourable peace.

Mr. Burke and lord Mulgrave juſtified the principle of retaliation, in caſe the French ſhould treat the emigrants in our pay as rebels. The latter ſaid, that the

conduct

conduct of the French toward their prisoners, was very different from the conduct of our army toward their prisoners. When Fort Mulgrave was taken by the French, they gave no quarter; and the English afterward laid down a resolution, when they were about to attack a fort in Corsica, to give no quarter to the French. The moment, however, the fort was taken, they not only changed their resolution, but knocked down the Corsicans, their allies, who wished to put to death the French soldiers who were found in it.

After a few observations from Mr. Dundas and Mr. W. Smith, the bill passed without a division.

On Monday, April 28, messages from the king were delivered to both houses, stating the terms of the subsidiary treaty between his majesty and the king of Prussia. This was ordered to be taken into consideration on a future day.

The next day, in the house of commons, Mr. Curwen moved, that the consideration of the subsidy treaty with Prussia might be deferred for a fortnight, that the whole of the representatives of the people might be summoned. He now thought himself liberated from the pledge he had given to the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Pitt) to support the war, as its object appeared to be entirely changed, it being now solely to introduce a detestable despotism into an independent state. He moved, therefore, for a call of the house.

No answer was returned by the minister or his friends; and the question being immediately called for, Mr. Whitbread, jun. among other observations, said, that the gentlemen who acted with him were overwhelmed by the *torrent* which the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Pitt) *commanded*. He was instantly called to order by colonel Stanley; and the speaker interfering, Mr. Whitbread apologized. —Mr. Sheridan, adverting to this circumstance, observed, that although he was far from saying that the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Pitt) owed his constant majorities to any undue influence he possessed over the minds of gentlemen, but, on the contrary, to the strength of his arguments, and the superiority of his eloquence, he had not discovered, till now, that the same effects would arise from his *silence* as from his *speaking*. But, however some gentlemen might be convinced by this dumb rhetoric, he must contend, that the magnitude of the sum, and the character of the ally we had acquired by this enormous price, rendered the present inquiry of peculiar importance. All the treasures of the late king of Prussia had been exhausted in the course of the war; and now that power was to be subsidized by Great Britain and Holland. Such stipulations plainly evinced, that there existed a design to restore the ancient despotism in France; for attempting which any minister ought to be brought to the block; and the right hon. gentleman, by his supercilious silence, had given a new proof of the contempt in which he held a British parliament.—On a division, the motion was negatived by 98 to 19.

On Wednesday, April 30, in a committee of the whole house on the Prussian subsidy, the chancellor of the exchequer observed, that his majesty's message referred to two important points; the first related to the treaty concluded with Prussia; and the second recommended to the house the consideration of the means for enabling his majesty to fulfil the stipulations thereof. With respect to the first, whatever might be the interests of his Prussian majesty in the issue of the present contest, and his zeal for the cause in which he had engaged, his situation and circumstances might be such, as to render it impossible for him to afford that assistance as a principal. He then stated, that Prussia was bound to furnish a body of 62,000 troops, over and above its contingent as a part of the empire; but which included the body of 32,000 which was to be furnished by a former treaty, on the requisition of the United Provinces and this country. For the above number was to be paid, in the way of subsidy, 50,000l. a month; in addition to this, 300,000l. was to be paid in advance, to enable those troops to be put in motion, and 100,000l. on their return; over and above this it was stipulated, that these troops should be furnished with bread, forage, &c. which had been calculated at a sum little short of 1,200,000l. per annum. So that this sum was engaged for by the present treaty only in such proportion as would provide for 30,000 men, and a certain proportion of the whole was to be paid by the Dutch; the entire sum therefore to be paid by this country, would be, from the period at which the payments were to commence, until the end of the year, about 1,350,000l. —He then expatiated on the superior advantages of this treaty, in point of economy, and other important respects, to preceding treaties of the same kind; and he concluded by moving, That the sum of two millions and a half be granted to

his majeſty, to enable him to fulfil the ſtipulations of the treaty with Pruſſia, entered into for the more vigorous proſecution of the war, and alſo to provide for ſuch exigencies as might ariſe in the ſervice of the year 1794, &c.

Mr. Fox oppoſed the motion. The pecuniary part of the queſtion, he ſaid, was of the leaſt importance. His principal objection was to the very dangerous example ſet in the preſent inſtance; as, in conſequence of it, every one of our allies might, on account of real or pretended inability, apply to us for pecuniary aſſiſtance. He conſidered the court of Pruſſia, after the repeated proofs of duplicity it had offered, as an improper ally for this country, and not to be depended upon, in any one point of view. He ſhould propoſe, therefore, as an amendment, that the words 'one million one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds' be inſerted, inſtead of 'two millions and a half.'—On a diviſion, there were, againſt Mr. Fox's amendment, 134 to 33. The motion then paſſed.

The ſame day, in the houſe of peers, lord Grenville, after expatiating on the great advantages of the treaty with Pruſſia, moved an addreſs to his majeſty, expreſſive of their approbation of it. This was oppoſed by the marquis of Lanſdown, who intimated, that we might not find the terms of the treaty complied with, after we had paid at Berlin, 600,000l. for the months of April and May.

Lord Manſfield had a different opinion of his Pruſſian majeſty's integrity; and it having been ſtated, that the war was without cauſe or object, he thought that there never was a war entered upon that had a more indiſpenſable neceſſity for proſecuting it with the greateſt vigour. The cauſe was, the deſtruction of a ſyſtem of plunder and devaſtation; and without this object could be obtained, no ſtate was ſecure.

Lord Lauderdale obſerved, that from the ſpeech of the noble earl, he was ſtill more convinced of the impolicy of the war, and the inefficacious expenditure in which this treaty would involve the nation; for, contrary to the firſt principle in which the war begun, that of defending our ally, it was now the declared object to deſtroy the exiſting government of France. Who could ſay, moreover, that Auſtria would not be the next to withdraw and require a ſubſidy? The ſame neceſſity and pretence exiſted in the caſe of the emperor as in that of the king of Pruſſia.

Lord Hawkeſbury, lord Auckland, the duke of Portland, and lord Grenville likewiſe ſupported the treaty. The latter, after obſerving, that it had been ſtated that we had changed the object of the war, ſubmitted to every noble lord, that the only object held out by this country, ſince the commencement of the war, was ſecurity; and that till the preſent government of France was entirely deſtroyed, there was no tranquillity or ſafety to Great Britain, or to any part of Europe.

On a diviſion, the numbers were 99 to 6 in favour of the addreſs.

On Friday, May 2, the order of the day being read, for reading a ſecond time the bill brought from the commons, for preventing the ſupplying of foreign countries with ſlaves brought by Britiſh merchants in Britiſh bottoms, lord Abingdon and the duke of Clarence reprobated the idea of aboliſhing the ſlave trade, and objected to this bill. Lord Grenville and the biſhop of Rocheſter declared themſelves friends to the total abolition of that trade, but could not approve of any partial annihilation of it, while an inquiry into the general queſtion was ſtill pending before their lordſhips. For theſe reaſons, lord Grenville moved, that the preſent bill ſhould be read a ſecond time this day three months. After ſome oppoſition from lords Stanhope and Lauderdale, the motion was carried by 45 to 4.

On Monday, May 5, the order of the day, for the commitment of the French emigrant corps bill being read, lord Albemarle objected to the bill; particularly, becauſe it would excite ferociouſneſs and cruelty, by leading to retaliation, ſince the unfortunate emigrants, if taken, would be inevitably ſacrificed by their countrymen. He conceived, moreover, that it was a very unconſtitutional meaſure, which could be productive of no good, and could only tend to prolong the war.

Lord Hawkeſbury denied that the bill was unconſtitutional. It limited the number of emigrants to be raiſed to 5000; and theſe could not remain in the country, nor be landed in England except to afford them relief in caſes of ſickneſs; and the bill ſpecified, that they ſhould not be ſuffered to march five miles into the country from the ſeacoaſt. He did not apprehend, that the enliſting of thoſe men could produce any thing like ferociouſneſs, as they never bore allegiance to the preſent French government, if government it could be called, as they were treated worſe than the Hugonots by Louis XIV. He did not conceive, how the enliſting of thoſe

men

men could prolong the war. They would be anxious to recover the property wreſted from them, and the war muſt ceaſe as ſoon as the object of this country was accomplished—That of overturning the preſent ſyſtem of government in France. And here he wiſhed to have it underſtood, that neither he, nor his majeſty's miniſters, had pledged themſelves to the reeſtabliſhment of any ſpecific form of government, as that was a ſubject for future conſideration, after the firſt object had been attained.

Earl Thanet obſerved, with reſpect to what had been ſaid, of not ſuffering the emigrants to march five miles into the country, that that was no ſecurity; as they could, under the ſanction of this bill, have poſſeſſion, not only of our fleet, but of Portſmouth, and all our valuable military depots on the coaſt.

Lord Lauderdale obſerved, that it was now avowed, that the war was proſecuted for the purpoſe of overturning the exiſting government of France; but the laſt noble lord had declared, that miniſters had not fixed on giving the French any other in return. This was the moſt extraordinary mode he had ever heard of producing order and tranquillity. Thus had miniſters, after repeatedly ſhifting their grounds, now ventured to aſſert their ſpecific object, which was equally as ſtrange and abſurd as all their former declarations. This was calculated to make the French ſtill more unanimous than they were at preſent. There was another point which deſerved conſideration; namely, the ſentiments which our troops were likely to imbibe, by ſerving in conjunction with thoſe men, who poſſeſſed thoſe deſpotic principles, that were ſo repugnant to the feelings of freemen, and the liberties of Britain.

Lord Auckland went over the ſame ground as lord Hawkeſbury. He reprobated the French convention, and compared Robeſpierre to the mock miniſter in Gil Blas.

The duke of Bedford accuſed miniſters of changing, as circumſtances required, their declarations of the cauſes that had induced them to go to war. In the firſt inſtance, they had declared it was a war of defence. They next declared, that they did not intend to interfere in the internal government of France; but now their declared object is to overturn the preſent exiſting ſyſtem. But he could not ſee the difference between interfering and annihilating. If the attempt to annihilate was not to interfere, it was a pitiful quibble. It was a fair inference to be deduced from what had fallen from miniſters, that this ſmall iſland (ſmall, comparatively ſpeaking, to France) was to exterminate 24,000,000 of people, or to overturn their government—for government that muſt be pronounced, which was accepted by the majority of the people; and, therefore, he did not conceive that any one man, or body of men, in this country, ſhould preſume to dictate to a whole nation. He could not approve of arming men to fight for the old odious deſpotiſm of France; to fight the battles of ariſtocracy in a country, where, if they had remained like men, and not deſerted their ſovereign in the hour of trial, he might now have exiſted, unleſs we had interfered. There lordſhips had long been tormented with tales of the barbarities of the French; but let miniſters look to themſelves. They had, with their confederates, driven them from ſtage to ſtage, to a ſtate of madneſs.

The marquis of Lanſdown likewiſe ſpoke againſt the bill, and lord Carnarvon for it; who imputed all the misfortunes of France to the promulgation of the rights of man. He was warmly anſwered, on this laſt topic, by lord Stanhope.

Lord Grenville, in anſwer to lord Stanhope, drew a deplorable picture of the calamities of France. He contended, that no dangers were to be apprehended from the aſſociation of our troops with the emigrants. The former would not ſuffer any contamination in their principles; becauſe the meaneſt ranks in our army had too much good ſenſe and information, not to ſee the bleſſings of the conſtitution under which they live, or to be induced by any arts, to prefer tyranny on the one hand, or democracy on the other.—That any conſtitutional danger could be apprehended from 5000 Frenchmen being in arms in the kingdom at once, he conceived perfectly ridiculous; as if it were poſſible they could overthrow the whole internal force of the kingdom, and march from Portſmouth to London without interruption. Thoſe French emigrants were the beſt perſons that could be employed for the attainment of the preſent object of the war, and the bad conſequences apprehended, would not now follow from any diſunion of ſentiment among them; as the enormities committed in France had created but one ſentiment in every mind, that thoſe deſperate wretches who uſurped the power at preſent, muſt be ſubdued. It

was

was not the deſire of revenge that animated theſe men: it was a wiſh to reſtore tranquillity to their diſtracted country. With reſpect to the doctrine of retaliation, he maintained, that if the French ſhould put any perſons to death employed in our ſervice, and bearing our commiſſions, we ſhould be juſtified by the law of nations, in taking any meaſures which might tend to prevent the repetition of ſuch conduct. He alſo maintained the right of one nation to interfere in the internal concerns of another, from the practice of ancient and modern nations; and in evidence of this, he cited the caſe with regard to Holland, when England interfered, and the very treaties for the guarantee of our own conſtitution.

After ſome other lords had ſpoken, without throwing any new light on the ſubject, a diviſion took place, for the bill 54; againſt it 7.

On Monday, May 12, Mr. ſecretary Dundas preſented to the houſe of commons, a meſſage from his majeſty, reſpecting the apprehending of certain perſons, and the ſeizing of certain papers. The proceedings on this meſſage we have already given in Vol. XCIV, page 395, and 444.

On Tueſday, May 13, on a motion being made for the third reading of the bill to prevent unneceſſary delays in elections, Mr. Powys obſerved that ſeveral clauſes had been added, ſince the introduction of the bill, which required the moſt mature conſideration, and therefore, he moved that the diſcuſſion of the bill be put off for three months.

Mr. Fox, Mr. Dent, and Mr. Burke were againſt the motion, as none of the new clauſes militated againſt the principle of the bill, to which the houſe had unanimouſly acceded. But the maſter of the rolls and the chancellor of the exchequer, who were equally friends to the bill, were for Mr. Powys' motion, to give time for more mature deliberation, and becauſe no material injury could ariſe from the propoſed delay. The motion, therefore, was carried without a diviſion; and the bill, in courſe, was rejected *pro tempore*.

On Tueſday, May 20, Mr. ſecretary Dundas, after an exordium, in which he expatiated on our recent ſucceſſes in the Weſt Indies, moved the following reſolutions, which were unanimouſly agreed to:

I. That the thanks of this houſe be preſented to ſir Charles Grey, for his able, gallant and meritorious ſervices in the Weſt Indies;

II. That the ſame be preſented to ſir John Jervis; and

III. That the ſame be preſented to lieutenant general Preſcott, and his royal highneſs prince Edward, and the other officers in that army.

IV. That the thanks, &c. be preſented to admiral Thompſon, for his gallant conduct.

V. That the houſe approve of and acknowledge the ſervices of the non-commiſſioned officers and ſoldiers.

VI. The ſame to the ſailors, for their co-operation and gallant conduct, &c.

On Monday, May 26, in the houſe of lords, the marquis of Lanſdown roſe to make a motion, relative to the ſituation of this country with America. Miniſters, he ſaid, had lately loſt ſight of the eſſential intereſts of their country, in an improper attention to objects beneath them; in the examination of ſome low people, who, by way of keeping up that ſyſtem of alarm which had ſo induſtriouſly been ſet afloat, had been charged with conſpiring againſt the ſtate, and the moſt dreadful weapons of deſtruction, it had been pretended, were fabricated, for carrying the moſt diabolical purpoſes into effect. For his part he did not believe that any plots had been formed; and he entertained too high an opinion of the Britiſh character, to ſuppoſe that the people would, let their deſigns be what they may, have recourſe to inventions of cruelty, but that, if they were determined to reſort to force, they would adopt the weapons they had always uſed. Proſecutions of the moſt cruel nature had been carried on, and the ſubject had been amuſed by this plan of alarm, while a ruinous war had been carrying on without, in which our loſſes had been immenſe; for he had letters which aſſured him, that, notwithſtanding the accounts publiſhed in our Gazettes, we had ſuſtained an immenſe loſs, both in men and artillery; that it was notorious, that the different powers in alliance looked on each other with jealouſy; and, particularly, we were the object of their envy, from our having ſeized upon the Weſt India iſlands, and thus engroſſed the whole of the ſugar trade. It was notorious, that the Dutch were tired of the war, yet miniſters had, inſtead of making the neutral powers their friends, done every thing to force them, by repeated inſults, to declare againſt us; and in one inſtance they appeared to have ſucceeded, for, ſo exaſperated were the Genoeſe at our treatment of them, that they ſeemed determined to declare for the French republic. He inſtanced

ſtanced the conduct of miniſters toward the grand duke of Tuſcany. He ſaid, that at the commencement of the war, Portugal had applied for our mediation to bring about a peace between her and the Dey of Algiers, and we had effected a truce, but it was done in ſo ſecret a way that it appeared to have been done for the purpoſe of injuring the American commerce, as it enabled a fleet which the Algerines had at the mouth of the ſtraits to fall upon the ſhips of the United States, and we therefore might be conſidered as the occaſion of the ſlavery and all the hardſhips which the ſubjects of that ſtate were enduring in the dominons of the Dey of Algiers. Another injury and inſult which the American ſtates had ſuffered, were the two orders of council, the one of June 8th, and the other of the 6th of November following. By the former, corn, flour, &c. in any neutral bottoms, (thoſe of Sweden excepted) bound to any port in France, were to be prevented entering, and upon a ſecond attempt were to be captured. By the latter, the produce of any of the French colonies, if found in neutral bottoms, were to be captured with the veſſel. The firſt of theſe meaſures was very violent, but the laſt was ſo alarming to the intereſts of our merchants, as to ſet the whole city of London in alarm; and by the repreſentations of a very reſpectable body of men it was, that the order was revoked. America has had more than her full ſhare of oppreſſion among the neutral nations: we had never fulfilled the treaty of peace, but had withheld the frontier forts, notwithſtanding the repeated repreſentations of the American miniſters, who had been treated with ſilent contempt; but the main object to which he deſired to draw their lordſhips attention, was to a reply made by lord Dorcheſter at Quebec, on the 10th of February laſt, to the Indians of the Seven Nations of Lower Canada, in which he ſaid he ſhould not be ſurpriſed, if within a year we were at war with America. This declaration appeared in the New-York papers; and it had ſuch an effect, as to cauſe an immediate embargo to be laid upon our ſhipping. The conſequence of a rupture with America would be very ſerious; our trade to the United States, and to our Weſt India poſſeſſions, would be materially injured, and Canada would fall. He therefore called upon miniſters to avow, whether they had given ſuch inſtructions to lord Dorcheſter, as to warrant the reply he had made; and for that purpoſe moved for the production of the inſtructions tranſmitted to lord Dorcheſter, relative to the Indian tribes.

Lord Grenville defended miniſters from the charge of having created any falſe alarm; and denied that the loſſes ſuſtained in our armies had ever been miſrepreſented, or that during the preſent two months of the campaign there had been more ſick and wounded among the combined troops than during the whole of the laſt campaign. He defended the conduct of miniſters toward the neutral nations, and ſaid that the conduct of government, if blameable, was for their extraordinary lenity and forbearance. As to the truce negociated by this country for Portugal, we were at the time on the eve of a war, and were to expect the aſſiſtance of that country: it was therefore policy. On the ſame grounds, he juſtified the detention of the frontier forts; and ſaid that the order of council of the 8th of June, was abſolutely neceſſary. That of the 6th of November was occaſioned by particular circumſtances: the enemy had carried the produce of their colonies for one whole year into the ports of America; and to prevent that reaching their own country, it was that the order was preſſed, which he admitted had been reſcinded, partly on the repreſentation of a body of reſpectable mercantile men. As to the reply of lord Dorcheſter, he knew nothing of it: it might have been made, but he had received no kind of diſpatch of that kind; and as the only grounds for the motion was a New-York newſpaper, he could not conſent to the motion.

The duke of Grafton, lord Stanhope, and lord Lauderdale, ſpoke in favour of the motion; lord Mansfield, lord Carnarvon, lord Coventry, lord Carliſle, the marquis of Townſhend, and lord Sydney againſt it; and, on a diviſion, the motion was rejected by 69 to 9.

The ſame day, Mr. Sheridan made a ſimilar motion on the ſame ſubject in the houſe of commons. In anſwer to it, Mr. ſecretary Dundas declared, that it was the firſt time he had ever heard of ſuch a paper being in exiſtence. He denied the knowledge of any orders being ſent from this country, upon which any ſuch anſwer could be grounded. It was the anxious wiſh of this country to maintain peace with America. So far was this country from doing any thing that might have the leaſt tendency to create a rupture with America, that ſhe did every thing in her power to ſettle all the diſputes that aroſe

between the Americans and the Indians.—After a few words from Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Wilberforce, and Mr. Robinſon, the motion was withdrawn.

Mr. Sheridan then roſe to make a motion for the repeal of certain teſts. He prefaced it by inſiſting on the loyalty and affection for the preſent form of government of his majeſty's Roman catholic ſubjects, and was ſorry to perceive that the vulgar prejudice of their being diſaffected perſons was not yet removed from the minds of many. He adverted to the embarraſſing ſituation of ſuch officers as were Roman catholics in the Iriſh forces, who, if they were called into this country, could not ſerve until certain acts were repealed. The abſurdity of their continuation, in this point of view, was obvious. The proteſtant diſſenters were ſtill more rightfully entitled to be relieved from theſe reſtrictions. He was of opinion, that the beſt mode would be to wipe away at once theſe diſgraceful acts from the ſtatute-books; but, at preſent, he would be content with propoſing to ſet aſide, during the war, ſuch qualification for places of military truſt as were now required, and to ſubſtitute in lieu thereof an oath, declaratory of political principles, and of the fidelity of the officer. He concluded with moving for 'leave for a bill to prevent certain qualifications, now called for by law, from being required in future of perſons bearing military offices.'

Mr. ſecretary Dundas obſerved, that the propoſition involved the entire repeal of the Teſt Act, on which the houſe had often decided. However, under the preſent circumſtances, it deſerved the moſt ſerious conſideration; he would therefore offer no opinion on the ſubject, nor would he give it a negative, but thought the beſt mode would be to offer the previous queſtion, which he moved accordingly.

After Mr. Fox and Mr. W. Smith had made ſome obſervations in favour of the Proteſtant Diſſenters, the previous queſtion was put and carried.

[To be concluded in our next.]

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTES.

The London Gazette Extraordinary, September 2.

Whitehall, September 1.

A Diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, was laſt night received from lieutenant-general the hon. Charles Stuart by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Calvi, Auguſt 10, 1794.

Sir,

I have the ſatisfaction to inform you, that the town of Calvi ſurrendered to his majeſty's forces on the 10th inſtant, after a ſiege of fifty-one days.

As I perfectly agreed with lord Hood in opinion that the utmoſt diſpatch was neceſſary, in order to enable the troops ſelected for the ſiege of Calvi to begin their operations before the commencement of the unhealthy ſeaſon, every effort was uſed to forward the neceſſary preparations; and ſo effectual were the exertions of the different departments, that, in the courſe of a very few days, the regiments embarked at Baſtia; and captain Nelſon, of his majeſty's ſhip Agamemnon, conſented, in lord Hood's abſence, to proceed to Port Agra, where a landing was effected on the 19th of June; and, in the courſe of the ſame day, the army encamped, in a ſtrong poſition, upon the Serra del Capuccine, a ridge of mountains three miles diſtant from the town of Calvi.

From many of the out-poſts, and particularly from thoſe the friendly Corſicans were ordered to occupy, I could diſtinctly diſcover that the town of Calvi was ſtrong in point of ſituation, well fortified, and amply ſupplied with heavy artillery; the exterior defences, on which the enemy had beſtowed a conſiderable labour, conſiſted in the bomb proof Stone Star Fort Mozello, mounting ten pieces of ordnance, with a battery of ſix guns on its right, flanked by a ſmall entrenchment. In the rear of this line (which covered the town to the weſtward) on a rocky hill to the eaſt, was placed a battery of three guns. Conſiderably advanced on the plain to the ſouth-weſt, the Fort Mollinochesco, on a ſteep rock, commanding the communication between Calvi and the province of Balagni, ſupported by two frigates moored in the bay, for the purpoſe of raking the intermediate country: but the principal difficulties in approaching the enemy's works, did not ſo much ariſe from the ſtrength of the defences, as from the height of the mountains and ruggy rocky ſurface of the country it was neceſſary to penetrate; and ſo conſiderable were theſe obſtacles againſt the uſual mode of attack, that it was judged expedient to

adopt rapid and forward movements, instead of regular approaches. In conformity to this plan of proceeding, the ſeamen and ſoldiers were laboriouſly employed in making roads, dragging guns to the tops of the mountains, and collecting military ſtores for the purpoſe of erecting two mortar and four ſeparate gun batteries on the ſame night. One of theſe was intended againſt the Mollinocheſco; the ſecond to be conſtructed on rocks to cover the principal one of ſix guns; which, by a ſudden march, and the exertions of the whole army, was to be erected within 750 yards of the Mozello.

From ſome miſtake, the battery propoſed againſt the Mollinocheſco was built and opened two days before the appointed time, and conſiderably damaged that fort. Obſerving, however, that it was the determination of the enemy to repair, and not evacuate it, the royal Iriſh regiment was ordered, on the evening of the 6th of July, to move toward their left, expoſing the men to the fire of their artillery. This diverſion was ſeconded at ſun-ſet, and during the greater part of the night, by a feigned attack of the Corſicans, which ſo effectually deceived the enemy, that they withdrew a conſiderable piquet from the ſpot where the principal battery was to be conſtructed, in order to ſupport the Mollinocheſco, and directing the whole of their fire to that point, enabled the troops to complete their work. This important poſition eſtabliſhed, the enemy was compelled to evacuate the Mollinocheſco, and to withdraw the ſhipping under the protection of the town. A very heavy fire immediately commenced on both ſides, and continued, with little intermiſſion until the 19th of that month, when, obſerving that their batteries were conſiderably damaged, and a breach appearing practicable on the weſt-ſide of the Mozello, a diſpoſition was made for a general attack upon the out-works, under cover of two batteries, ordered to be erected that night, which, from their poſition, would, in the event of a check, appear the principal object of the movement.

From the zeal of lieutenant-colonel Bauchope, and the great exertions of the 30th regiment, the battery, which he undertook to conſtruct within three hundred yards of the Mozello, was completed an hour before day-break, without diſcovery: a ſignal gun was then fired from it for the troops to advance. Lieutenant Newhouſe of the royal artillery, with two field pieces, covered the approach; and the grenadiers, light infantry and ſecond battalion of the royals, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Moore, of the 51ſt regiment, and major Brereton, of the 30th regiment, proceeded with a cool, ſteady confidence, and unloaded arms toward the enemy, forced their way through a ſmart fire of muſquetry, and, regardleſs of live ſhells flung into the breach, or the additional defence of pikes, ſtormed the Mozello; while lieutenant-colonel Wemyſs, with the royal Iriſh regiment, and two pieces of cannon, under the direction of lieutenant Lemoine of the royal artillery, equally regardleſs of oppoſition, carried the enemy's battery on the left; and forced their trenches without firing a ſhot.

The poſſeſſion of theſe very important poſts, which the troops maintained under the heavieſt fire of ſhells, ſhot and grape, induced me to offer to conſider ſuch terms as the garriſon of Calvi might be inclined to propoſe; but receiving an unfavourable anſwer, the navy and army once more united their efforts; and, in nine days, batteries of thirteen guns, four mortars, and three howitzers, were completed within 600 yards of the town, and opened with ſo well-directed a fire, that the enemy were unable to remain at their guns; and in eighteen hours ſent propoſals, which terminated in a capitulation, and the expulſion of the French from Corſica.

It is with ſincere regret that I have to mention the loſs of captain Serocold of the navy, who was killed by a cannot-ſhot when actively employed on the batteries. The aſſiſtance and co-operation of captain Nelſon, the activity of captain Hallowell, and the exertions of the navy, have greatly contributed to the ſucceſs of theſe movements.

The ſpirit, zeal and willingneſs with which this army has undergone the greateſt labour and fatigue, in the moſt oppreſſive weather, is hardly to be deſcribed; and ſuch has been the determined animation of both officers and men, that the ſmalleſt murmur has never been heard, unleſs illneſs deprived them from making their ſervices uſeful to their country.

I am much indebted to lieutenant-colonel Moore for his aſſiſtance upon every occaſion; and it is only a tribute due to his worth to mention, that he has diſtinguiſhed himſelf upon this expedition for his bravery, conduct and military talents.

It is with the utmoſt confidence I preſume to recommend to his majeſty my aid-de-camp, captain Duncan, of the

royal artillery; whoſe activity, zeal and ability, in his own and the engineer department, merits the higheſt commendation and advancement.

Captain Stephens, the officers and men of the royal artillery, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves with their uſual ability in the management of the batteries, and their attention to the different branches of that line.

Sir James Erſkine and major Oakes have been eſſentially uſeful in their different departments; and permit me to aſſure you, that a cordiality ſubſiſts throughout the army, which promiſes the moſt ſignal ſucceſs on any future undertaking.

I have the happineſs to inform you, that captains Macdonald and Mackenzie, and the other wounded officers and ſoldiers, are in a fair way of recovery.

Captain Stewart, an officer of great merit and my aid-de-camp, will have the honour of delivering this diſpatch. I have the honour to be, &c.

C. STUART, Lieut.-general.

Here follow the articles of capitulation, by which the garriſon were to march out with the honours of war; to depoſit their arms, colours, and cannon at a place appointed; but, in conſideration of their gallant defence, to be allowed to wear their ſwords; and to be conveyed to Toulon. The inſcription upon the gates of the citadel, 'Civitas Calvi ſemper fidelis,' ſo remain as an honourable teſtimony of the conduct, the character, and the virtues of the inhabitants of Calvi.

Total of the killed and wounded.

One field officer, one captain, three ſubalterns, twenty-five rank and file, killed.—One field officer, three captains, four ſubalterns, three ſerjeants, forty-nine rank and file, wounded.

Names of the Officers killed.

Lieutenant-colonel Senibaldi, Corſican battalion: captain Serocold, royal navy; Mr. Banks, midſhipman, ditto; lieutenant William Byron, royal regiment of Ireland; enſign Boggis, 51ſt regiment.

Names of the Officers wounded.

Lieutenant-colonel Moore, 51ſt regiment; captain colonel Macdonald, royal; captain Mackenzie, ditto; lieut. Donald Macdonald, ditto; Lieutenant Johnſton, royal regiment of Ireland; lieutenant Livingſton, 30th regiment; captain John Paoli, Corſican battalion; lieut. Franciſco Mattei, ditto.

Return of Ships and Veſſels taken in the Harbour of Calvi, Auguſt 10, 1794.

La Melpomene	-	40 guns.
Mignonne	-	28
Brig Auguſte	-	4
Brig Providence	-	4
Ca Ira Gun Boat	-	3

From the London Gazette, Tueſday, September 2.

Admiralty-office, September 1. Letters from lord Hood, commander in chief of his majeſty's fleet in the Mediterranean, to Mr. Stephens, of which the following are extracts, were laſt night received at this office.

[DUPLICATE.]

Victory, Martello-bay, Aug. 5, 1794.

My letter of the 15th of June would inform you, that having forced the French ſhips on the 11th, which ſailed from Toulon on the 5th, to ſeek their ſafety within the ſhoals in the Bay of Gourjean, and under the protection of the batteries of the iſlands of St. Honora and St. Margaretta, and on Cape Garoupe; that I had left vice-admiral Hotham to watch them; and that I was returning to Corſica, to join lieutenant-general Stuart for the reduction of Calvi; which I have the honour to acquaint you is now, I believe, on the point of ſurrendering to the arms of his majeſty.

Upon my junction with vice-admiral Hotham off this port on the 9th, I detached capt. Nelſon, in the Agamemnon, to Baſtia, with orders to embark the troops, and proceed with them to Martello-Bay, where lieutenant-general Stuart embarked on the 15th; and expreſſing a wiſh to proceed to the attack of Calvi immediately, captain Nelſon complied with it, and on the 19th all the troops were landed, under the direction of capt. Cooke, in a ſmall cove, about three miles from Calvi.

I anchored in Martello-Bay on the 19th; and ſo ſoon as I had embarked the ordnance and other ſtores the general had deſired, which the boiſterous weather for ſome days prevented, and had forced the Agamemnon and ſeveral of the tranſports from their anchors; but his majeſty's ſmaller ſhips, and the reſt of the tranſports, which were cloſe under the land, and had not room to get under ſail, very fortunately rode the gale out, without an accident to either, the wind not blowing home to the ſhore with ſo much violence.

On

On the 26th I ſailed, having previouſly ſent capt. Hallowell and capt. Serocold (who were eager volunteers for the ſervice, as were alſo the lieutenants Ferriers and Morgan) with as many able ſeamen as the Victory could then ſpare, to aſſiſt in dragging up the ordnance, and ſerving the batteries.

The journal I herewith tranſmit from capt. Nelſon, who had the command of the ſeamen, will ſhow the daily occurrences of the ſiege, and whoſe unremitting zeal and exertion I cannot ſufficiently expreſs, or of that of capt. Hallowell, who took it by turns to command in the advanced battery 24 hours at a time; and I flatter myſelf they, as well as the other officers and ſeamen, will have full juſtice done them by the general; it is therefore unneceſſary for me to ſay more upon the ſubject: but I have to lament, and which I do moſt ſincerely, the loſs of a very able and valuable officer, capt. Serocold, who was killed by a grape-ſhot, while getting the laſt gun in its place, ſoon after the enemy had diſcovered our battery. The king had not a more meritorious young captain in his majeſty's navy: he commanded the floating-battery, which was burnt by a red-hot ſhot, before Baſtia, and afterward ſerved, with infinite reputation, at the batteries on ſhore. Independent of my regard and eſteem for him, I feel his loſs to be a public one.

Much credit is due to the captains Wolſeley, Hood, ſir Charles Hamilton, ſir Harry Burrard, Cunningham, Macnamara, and Robinſon, for their vigilance in keeping ſuccours out, by a ſteady perſeverance in preſerving their reſpective ſtations, under manifeſt difficulties; and I ought not to omit to mention my tribute of praiſe to Mr. Gibſon, commanding the Fox hired cutter, of whom all the captains ſpeak in the handſomeſt manner for his diligence and punctual obedience to orders. For near two months they did not receive at Calvi any intelligence from the continent, until the night of the 29th, when four boats got in, the port not being then ſo well and cloſely guarded, having been obliged to ſend off three frigates to Naples and other places for ſtores, which the general preſſed for, and the nights being dark.

On the 27th I arrived off Calvi, and have kept cloſe off the port ever ſince, in order to receive the wants of the army every morning, having ſtationed a frigate at anchor off Cape Revalata, and another off Point D'Eſpana. I have landed from this ſhip ſeven of her lower deck guns; and, from time to time, all requiſitions for various other ſtores as well as for men, the general has made, have been complied with, under great inconvenience, that the operations of the army ſhould not ſtand ſtill.

On the 29th of laſt month I had the honour of a viſit from general Stuart, who brought letters that had paſſed between him and the commandant of the French troops, relative to a truce for twenty-five days; which appearing to be inadmiſſible, in the afternoon of the 30th of July our batteries were opened; and on the morning of the 1ſt inſt. the white flag was diſplayed on the citadel, under the national one, and the firing ceaſed.

Victory, off Calvi, Aug. 9, 1794.

I herewith have the honour to tranſmit, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, duplicates of my diſpatches of the 5th, from Martello-Bay.

I ſailed on the 7th, and got off here the next morning; and herewith tranſmit a copy of captain Nelſon's journal, from the 28th of laſt month to the 8th of the preſent one; alſo the copy of a letter I have received from him, highly creditable to lieutenant Harriſon, a tranſport agent, as well as to Mr. William Harrington, maſter of the Willington, and the tranſport's men, who were all anxiouſly eager, either to ſerve on ſhore or on board his majeſty's ſhips.

I have ordered capt. Wolſely to take poſſeſſion of the Melpoméne and Mignonne frigates, the former is one of the fineſt ever built in France, carries 40 guns; the other only 32; and I have received an account from the conſul at Zante, that his majeſty's frigates which I ſent into the Levant, under the command of capt. Montgomery, have taken the Sybille, twin ſiſter to the Melpoméne.

Capt. Cunningham, who has cruiſed with infinite diligence, zeal, and perſeverance under many difficulties, for three months paſt, off Calvi, is charged with my diſpatches; is competent to give any information their lordſhips may wiſh to have; and I beg to recommend him as an officer of great merit, and highly deſerving any favour that can be ſhown him.

Extract of a letter from Sir John Borlaſe Warren, K. B. captain of his majeſty's ſhip Flora, to Mr. Stephens, dated Falmouth, Aug. 29, 1794.

I beg you will inform their lordſhips that

that I put to ſea, with his majeſty's ſquadron under my command, on the 7th inſt. and on the 14th in the evening ſtood to the northward, to obtain information of a French ſquadron of frigates that were ſuppoſed to be cruiſing to the weſtward and northward of Scilly; but not having ſeen them, I ſtretched over toward the Penmarks; and on the 23d, at four A. M. I diſcovered one of the enemy's frigates, made the ſignal for a general chace, and continued the purſuit until four P. M. when his majeſty's ſhip Diamond, in company with the Artois, Santa Margarita and Diana, engaged and ran her aſhore near the Penmark Rocks, where they left her on beam-ends, diſabled and irrecoverably loſt. I underſtand, from the report from the ſeveral officers, that ſhe was the Felicité, of 40 guns, upon a cruiſe, and had left Breſt ſix days.

'Having ſeen two ſhip corvettes to windward of Point de Ras, I gave chace, in company with his majeſty's ſhip Arethuſa, when the enemy ſtood into the Bay d'Hodierne, and anchored off the Gamelle Rocks: perceiving my intention of cloſing with them, they got under weigh, and ran aground under cover of three batteries. The two ſhips continued engaging till a quarter after ſix P. M. when the corvette's maſts went by the board, and the crews got on ſhore.

'I immediately ordered our boats manned and armed, with directions to put themſelves under ſir Edward Pellew's orders, and to ſet the enemy's ſhip on fire, or otherwiſe deſtroy them; which ſervice was fully performed, he having repreſented to me that there were from 20 to 30 killed and wounded in the Alert, and a greater number in the Eſpion; and that it was impoſſible to remove the wounded to the two frigates, as many of them muſt have ſuffered in ſo doing: for the ſake of humanity I judged it proper to let them remain, as the enemy's veſſels were bilged and ſcuttled, the rocks appearing through their bottoms; and it being impoſſible to get them off, it would have occaſioned much delay; being then only nine leagues from Breſt; I therefore brought away 52 priſoners, and ſtood to ſea.

'I have great pleaſure in ſaying, that the deſtruction of the French veſſels was obtained with very trifling loſs, as will be ſeen in the margin *; and that every effort was made by the officers and men in the different ſhips, in the execution of their duty, which was performed with the utmoſt alacrity, and will, I truſt, meet with their lordſhips approbation.

I beg leave to add, that the ſquadron on the 27th inſt. recaptured the Queen, of London, from Jamaica; alſo the Mary, a brig from New Orleans, bound to London, laden with furs, indigo, &c.

A liſt of French ſhips of war deſtroyed by the ſquadron under the command of Sir John Borlaſe Warren, K. B. on the 23d of Auguſt, 1794.

	Guns.	Weight.	Men.
La Felicité,	40	18 pounders,	350
L'Eſpion,	18	9 ditto,	200
Alert,	18	9 ditto,	200

The two laſt ſhips were formerly in our ſervice.

Horſe Guards, Sept. 2, 1794. By a diſpatch which has been received by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, from the right hon. lord Mulgrave, dated Fluſhing, Aug. 29, 1794, it appears that the garriſon of Sluys ſurrendered to the enemy on the 26th of that month. The terms of capitulation have not hitherto been received.

The London Gazette Extraordinary, of Sunday September 21.

Horſe Guards, Sept. 21.

A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, was this morning received from his royal highneſs the duke of York by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Head-quarters, at Graves, Sept. 17, 1794.

SIR,

In my laſt letter of the 13th inſt. I acquainted you, for his majeſty's information, with a report, which I had juſt received, of the enemy's having made a movement toward Ooſterwych. It appeared, however, by the account of the next day, that this corps had fallen back in the night. The ſame accounts, confirmed by the reports of deſerters, aſſured us, that a very conſiderable detachment, amounting to fifteen thouſand men, had been made toward Maeſtricht.

On Sunday afternoon a ſudden attack, in which it appeared that the enemy were in great force, was made upon all my poſts

* Diamond, 5 wounded; Santa Margarita, 1 wounded.

of

of the right; and that of Boxtel, which was the moſt advanced, was forced with conſiderable loſs to the Heſſe Darmſtadt troops, who occupied it.

As the line of my out-poſts upon the Dommel could not be maintained, while the enemy were in poſſeſſion of Boxtel, it appeared neceſſary to regain it; at the ſame time the degree of reſiſtance which the enemy would make, would ſerve to aſcertain whether this attack was ſupported by their army, with a view to a general attack, or was merely an affair of out-poſts.

I therefore ordered lieutenant-general Abercromby to march with the reſerve during the night, with directions to reconnoitre the poſts at day-light, and to act as he ſhould judge beſt, from what he ſhould diſcover of the force of the enemy.

Lieutenant-general Abercromby having advanced as directed, found the enemy in ſuch ſtrength as left little room to doubt of the proximity of their army, and he accordingly retired, but in ſuch good order as prevented the enemy from making any impreſſion, although they followed him for ſome diſtance.

About this time I received private information, upon which I could rely, and which was confirmed by the obſervation of my patroles, and the reports of deſerters, that the enemy had been re-enforced by the corps which had hitherto been acting in Weſt Flanders, as well as by a column of the army which had been employed before Valenciennes and Condé. The ſame information aſſured me alſo, that the column which had been marching toward Maeſtricht, had ſuddenly returned toward us.

From theſe accounts, and what I knew of the previous ſtrength of the enemy, it appeared that the actual force now advancing againſt me, and whoſe object could only be an attack upon my army, could ſcarcely be leſs than eighty thouſand men.

The hazard of an action with ſuch a very great diſparity of numbers, could not but become a matter of the moſt ſerious conſideration; and, after the moſt mature deliberation, I did not think myſelf at liberty to riſk, in ſo unequal a conteſt, his majeſty's troops, or thoſe of his allies ſerving with them. I had the utmoſt reliance on their courage and diſcipline, and I had no doubt but that theſe would have enabled me to reſiſt the firſt efforts of the enemy; but it could ſcarcely be expected that even by the utmoſt exertion of theſe qualities they would be able to withſtand the reiterated attacks, which the vaſt ſuperiority of the enemy would enable them to make, and which we know, from experience, is a general principle upon which they act.

Actuated by theſe reaſons, and the further information, which I received about noon, that the enemy were marching conſiderable columns toward my left, in which part my poſition was moſt vulnerable, I determined on retreating acroſs the Meuſe. The army accordingly marched at three o'clock, and, without any loſs whatever, took up a poſition, which had been previouſly reconnoitered, about three miles in front of this place, from which they croſſed the river yeſterday morning.

The loſs in the attack upon the out-poſts has fallen chiefly upon the Heſſe Darmſtadt troops, with ſome of the foreign troops newly raiſed for his majeſty's ſervice. I have not as yet, however, received the returns. Encloſed I ſend that of the Britiſh.

(Signed) I am, &c. FREDERICK.

Total of the return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, of the Army under the Command of his royal highneſs the Duke of York, the 15th of September 1794.

Total—6 rank and file killed; 2 ſerjeants, 12 rank and file wounded, 2 officers, 4 ſerjeants, 1 drummer, 64 rank and file miſſing.

Captain Briſtow, of the 1ſt Guards, taken priſoner.

Lieutenant Euſtace, of the 12th Foot, miſſing.

Captain Rutherford, of the Royal Engineers, aſſiſtant deputy quarter-maſter-general, taken priſoner.

The Light Cavalry being on the advanced poſts, their return has not yet been received, but their loſs is very inconſiderable.

The 89th regiment was engaged, and loſt ſeveral men. Their return has not yet been received.

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

AUSTRIA.

Vienna, Auguſt 4.

SOME nights ago, (very unexpectedly) ſeveral perſons of various ranks were arreſted, and their papers examined. At the ſame time a guard was placed at all the gates of the city, the watch was doubled, the ſoldiers had ball cartridges delivered out to them, and various other meaſures were taken for the public ſecurity.

rity. It is poſitively aſſerted that an inſurrection was in agitation, which was to have broken out a few days ago, had not the above meaſures been taken. A commiſſion is particularly inſtituted to enquire into this buſineſs, of which the vice-director of the police, count Sauran, is preſident, and the members who are choſen from the various departments are men well known for their honour, integrity, and the ſoundneſs of their principles.

This day, ſome more perſons have been arreſted, and among the reſt one of the council of our magiſtracy.

The commiſſion of enquiry will ſhortly commence their ſittings, and are to report their proceedings to the upper college of juſtice. We have no doubt of more accomplices being taken up, as their number is ſaid to be great, and of all ranks. In the mean time, every meaſure is taking to enſure the public tranquillity, as well by night as by day; a watchful eye is kept over all the coffee-houſes, wine and beer houſes, to prevent tumultuous aſſemblies and diſturbances; all night ſtrong patroles parade the ſtreets, and the doors of the great houſes are ordered to be ſhut ſooner than uſual. All the city gates, which have not been ſhut for many years, are repairing, and are to be ſhut at duſk.

The EMPIRE.

Coblentz, Aug. 11. We have juſt received the unwelcome news that the French have appeared in great force before Treves, and, after an obſtinate battle, carried the entrenchments, and obliged the Auſtrians to retire to the Hetzerader Heath: Treves was in conſequence obliged to ſurrender yeſterday. The alarm is very great, and all that can get away do. Six hundred men are at work at a bridge of boats, but if the Pruſſians do not come to our aſſiſtance over the Hundſruch, this town cannot hold out, as we have but a few Treves militia in the place, and there are but a ſmall number of Auſtrians at Ehrenſtreitſtein. The magazines are removing in all poſſible haſte.

The French have demanded of Treves a million of livres, 4000 pair of ſhoes and 4000 pair of ſtockings. They are entrenching themſelves on the Marxburg, oppoſite Treves: they are 40,000 ſtrong.

TURKEY.

Smyrna, July 1. In the night of the 5th of June, the inhabitants of the Iſland of Tenedos, in the Archipelago, were very much alarmed by ſeveral ſevere ſhocks of an earthquake. In the morning, to their great ſurpriſe they diſcovered a ſmall iſland, about half a mile in circumference, emerged from the ſea, between them and the Aſiatic ſhore. In the center was obſerved a ſmall volcano, out of which iſſued ſmoke of a reddiſh hue. When I heard this extraordinary account, I was determined to be an eye-witneſs of it, and therefore hired a ſmall veſſel, which ſoon conveyed me there. I was told it had increaſed much ſince it firſt ſprung up, and ſtill continued doing the ſame.

As the inhabitants are very ignorant and ſuperſtitious, they are afraid to venture near it; I therefore ſet out for the ſpot with my ſervant: we tied the boat to a rock of the new iſland, and proceeded upon it. I obſerved ſeveral branches of coral diſperſed upon the iſland, likewiſe different ſorts of ſhell fiſh. A moſt wonderful noiſe proceeded from the volcano reſembling the rumbling of waggons.

POLAND.

Berlin, Sept. 13. In the Gazette of this city of this day, under an article from the head-quarters of the army before Warſaw, Sept. 6, it is ſet forth, 'notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of that army, and particularly their victories on the 26th and 28th of laſt month, had driven the enemy to the laſt redoubts before that city, and thereby enabled them to attack that capital, yet that an inſurrection ſo general, and ſo violent, had broke out in South Pruſſia, that his majeſty thinks it neceſſary firſt to put a ſtop to thoſe diſturbances, which threaten all Southern Pruſſia and Sileſia: his majeſty therefore reſolved to ſtop all further proceedings againſt Warſaw for the preſent, and to march with the army on the 6th to Raczin, and by taking a favourable poſition quell the inſurrection which has broken out in South Pruſſia, and puniſh the ringleaders.' The Ruſſian corps under general Ferſen encamped near Piaczeſna on the ſame day.

Thorn, Sept. 6. The inſurrection in South Pruſſia is of ſo formidable a nature, that troops are ſending from all parts of Pruſſia, and even from the army before Warſaw, to quell the diſturbances in that newly-acquired territory.

DENMARK.

Copenhagen, Sept. 6. The reſolution of the court of London, revoking the order given to ſeize all veſſels loaded with corn

corn for France, to carry them into ſome Britiſh port, and pay the value of their cargoes, &c. has given general ſatisfaction here. The court of London has alſo agreed to pay the value of all cargoes of Daniſh veſſels carried into the Britiſh ports; the amount is ſaid to be 557,000l. ſterling.

Thus the object of the northern armament being fulfilled, our fleet will return into port on the 16th, to be diſarmed, and the Swedes will go to Carlſcrona.

A Succinct Account of the late RIOTS *in the* CITY *of* LONDON.

ON Wedneſday, the 20th of Auguſt, at two o'clock, P. M. information was brought to the Manſion-houſe, that a riot was beginning in Shoe-lane, whereupon orders were given to all the conſtables to be immediately on duty, to keep the peace of the city; and while they were aſſembling, the two city marſhals proceeded to Shoe-lane, where they found the mob actually breaking into a houſe in Stonecutter-ſtreet, which backs on No. 22, Shoe-lane, which was a houſe of rendezvous. With difficulty the city marſhals turned out thoſe who had entered the houſe, but for want of force could ſecure none of them.

At three o'clock, the lord-mayor came on the ſpot with a party of conſtables, and endeavours were made, without effect, to clear the ſtreet, and completely to diſperſe the people. At this time, the mob were no otherwiſe miſchievous than in refuſing to depart, and in ſaluting the chief magiſtrate and peace officers at every effort they made, with hiſſing, hooting, and hallooing.

The lord-mayor, having learnt that other places were threatened, returned to the manſion-houſe, at five o'clock, and inſtantly ſent to the artillery company and to the light horſe volunteers, to deſire that they would aſſemble under arms as ſoon as poſſible, and join him in Shoe-lane. Learning ſoon after that the mob had increaſed, and fearing there was no time to loſe, he ſent to the Tower, to requeſt the aid of a detachment of his majeſty's guards, and returned at ſix o'clock to Shoe-lane, where the mob had aſſembled in great numbers, and although there were 100 conſtables preſent, who were very zealouſly aided by the common council and principal inhabitants of the ward, yet it was found, after repeated efforts were made, that it was impoſſible to quell the riot.

Some time after ſeven o'clock, the lord-mayor hearing that the guards were at hand, read the riot act in three different places, in doing which he was ſaluted from ſome of the houſes, and from the mob, with hooting and hiſſing. The detachment of his majeſty's Coldſtream regiment of guards, under the conduct of captain Brice and enſign Lloyd being arrived, they cleared the place, and the avenues leading to it, of the mob, with little difficulty, and without doing the leaſt injury to any one. Soon after the artillery company arrived under the command of ſir Watkin Lewes, their colonel, and were deſired by the lord-mayor to proceed immediately to the manſion-houſe, and to bend their attention toward the eaſtern part of the city.

About eight o'clock, information was brought, that a powerful mob was demoliſhing a houſe in Holborn, nearly oppoſite to Fetter-lane, upon which the lord-mayor proceeded thither, with captain Brice, and part of the detachment, being preceded by Mr. Hollier, the city marſhal, with ſome conſtables, who found the rioters in the very act of forcing the door and windows of the houſe. Mr. Hollier ſeized two of them; but being violently aſſaulted from behind, was obliged to let one go, and with difficulty ſecured the other till the military came up. The mob here was very numerous and daring, ſome of them throwing ſtones, &c. at the peace officers and military. The lord-mayor read the riot act, and with ſome difficulty, though without the leaſt hurt to any one, the guards drove the mob back, and peace was in time reſtored here.

About nine o'clock word was brought, that the mob was in Bride-lane, attempting to demoliſh a houſe there. From the number and turbulent temper of the people in Holborn, it was not poſſible for ſome time to quit that ſituation; but as ſoon as there was an appearance of quiet there, the lord-mayor, with the city marſhal, moved toward Bride-lane, attended by captain Brice, and a diviſion of the guards, leaving parties in Holborn and Shoe-lane. In Fleet-ſtreet, they were met by adjutant Dunlop and a diviſion of the light horſe volunteers, who were ordered to go to Holborn. The crowd in Fleet-ſtreet was immenſe. On coming to Bride-lane, the lord-mayor heard that the rioters, after deſtroying the houſe there, were gone

to

to Long-lane; he followed, and in his way meeting with captain Herries, and another division of the light horſe volunteers, deſired they would attend him, which they did. On coming into Long-lane, they found that the mob had gutted the houſe, and were with great celerity gone to another in Golden-lane, which being underſtood to be out of the city, the lord-mayor was obliged to deſiſt from the purſuit, and to return with captain Brice, and his diviſion to the reſt of the detachment in Shoe-lane, leaving captain Herries to purſue the rioters, which he did with equal gallantry and ſucceſs; for though they were gone from Shoe-lane, when he reached the place, he ſet off with his diviſion at a ſmart trot, and overtook them in Moorfields, in the act of demoliſhing the Saſh public-houſe, in the ſight of a number of the county conſtables. Here the mob attacked the light horſe volunteers with brick-bats, &c. notwithſtanding which captain Herries forced his way to the houſe, in doing which he received three violent blows from brick-bats or ſtones, and cauſed his two center files to alight and enter the houſe, where they ſeized five rioters, who were by the diviſion conveyed to, and ſafely lodged in, the Shoreditch watch-houſe.

Having done this ſervice, captain Herries returned to Moorfields after the rioters, but found they were gone, and it was ſaid toward St. Mary Axe; to which place captain Herries immediately proceeded on a full gallop, and got there before any mob arrived. After having ſo done, and examined the ſtreets in that part of the city, finding every thing was quiet, he went to meet the lord mayor, and continued with the light horſe volunteers to patrole the city until they were diſmiſſed at two o'clock in the morning.

When the lord mayor returned to Shoe-lane, he received advice that the mob intended to come from Moorfields to demoliſh the ſhip in Whitecroſs-ſtreet; upon which he ſent to the manſion-houſe to deſire the artillery company would proceed thither, under the command of ſir Watkin Lewes, reſerving the guards to proceed with them to that or any other part of the city, when it could be aſcertained where the mob was gone to. Sir Watkin Lewes accordingly marched with the artillery company to Whitecroſs-ſtreet, and arrived at the critical minute, the mob being then actually proceeding thither from Moorfields, but were effectually prevented by ſir Watkin from doing any miſchief in that part of the city; and finding themſelves likely to be attacked, the rioters retired, and the city was quiet the reſt of the night.

On Thurſday the metropolis, and particularly the city, rung with reports of what the rioters meant to do; liſts of places were handed about, of houſes and public buildings marked out to be demoliſhed, and of perſons deſtined to be murdered; the whole of which had evidently no other object than that of harraſſing, perplexing, and terrifying the magiſtrates and peaceable inhabitants. As, however, real attacks were made upon the conſtables ſtationed in Bride-lane and Shoe-lane, the lord mayor thought it his duty to ſend to the Tower for aſſiſtance; and at two he received a party, commanded by captain Boulton, who in ſome hours after was followed by another party under the command of captain Brice, whoſe gallantry and humanity had on the preceding evening appeared ſo conſpicuous. The light horſe volunteers were on duty by three, and the artillery company by five. Multitudes of idle and diſorderly perſons were in the ſtreets, but all ſeemed quiet until about ten that night, when advice came, that the conſtables in Shoe-lane were hard preſſed by a mob with bludgeons and ſtones; upon which part of the artillery company marched thither, and part of the guards took poſt in front of the manſion-houſe, and the reſt of the guards and artillery company remained under arms ready to march on the ſhorteſt notice. The artillery company got to Shoe-lane juſt as the mob had overpowered the conſtables, and perfectly ſecured the place, being aſſiſted by adjutant Dunlop and a diviſion of the light horſe volunteers, who were, in ſo doing, very much inſulted by a mob in Fleet-ſtreet.

The rioters finding the city too well guarded for their purpoſe, flew into the county, and demoliſhed a houſe in Gray's Inn-lane. No other rioting or miſchief was attempted to be done in the city that night.

On Friday good hopes were entertained that the rioters would diſcontinue their outrages, and accordingly no military force was aſked for before it became duſk, when a ſmall detachment, under the command of captain Fuller, came to the manſion-houſe, and were followed by the artillery company. The light horſe volunteers alſo were on duty.

The only riot or alarm that took place any where that night was toward Clerken-

well, to which the light horſe volunteers, on a requiſition from the magiſtrates, marched with great alacrity, but found the danger was over; the rioters had, however, attempted to demoliſh a houſe at Battle-bridge, but were diſturbed in the act by the peace officers, who with ſome difficulty ſecured one of them, and diſperſed the reſt.

There being no appearance of further riots, the lord mayor, on the Saturday morning, had the pleaſure to inform his grace the duke of Portland, ſecretary of ſtate for the home department, that he thought the city was perfectly reſtored to peace and good order, and therefore declined the further aid of any military force.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

AUGUST 25.

A Letter from Edinburgh, dated the 23d, ſays, 'On Thurſday, a bee-hive of uncommon ſize was weighed in the weigh-houſe here; hive, wax, and honey, 130lbs. Engliſh. The hive meaſured thirty inches diameter, and twelve inches in depth; it was reared in the pariſh of Cambuſnethan, after the method preſcribed by Bonner in his Treatiſe on the Generation and management of Bees, as quoted in the Encyclopedia Britannica, under the article Drone. If this plan were more generally followed, particularly ſetting aſide good ſtale hives in September, and taking great care ſufficient food be given them in the latter end of ſpring, a time that proves fatal to bees if the weather is bad, from ſuch a method of managing, a very large crop of fine honey might annually be raiſed in this country, and ſave much money which is paid for foreign honey of a very inferior quality.

Waterford, Auguſt 26. Laſt week, Michael Cody, of Urlingford, was committed to Kilkenny gaol, for the murder of his wife, his ſon, a lad of about 16, and a child of two years old. The motives are yet unknown that could have actuated him, but he has acknowledged the fact, with ſome of the particulars: determined to kill his wife, his three children, and himſelf, he took the opportunity of their ſitting down together to dinner, to ſtrike each of them on the head with a hatchet, and then finiſh the bloody work with a razor; but one eſcaped, his eldeſt ſon, who preſently returned with the neighbourhood, and found all expiring except the murderer, who had wounded himſelf ineffectually. He is faſt recovering of the wound, but preſents a dreadful and ſtrange ſpectacle of remorſe and diſappointment.

AUGUST 26.

At Nottingham aſſize, a cauſe was tried before the lord chief baron and a ſpecial jury, of great importance to the navigation of the river Trent. The Burton Boat-company were plaintiffs, and the Gainſborough Boat-company defendants; each had a boat hauling upward from Gainſborough, and that of the plaintiffs had power to overhaul that of the defendants, the maſter of which refuſed to ſlacken his lines for the plaintiffs to paſs him, according to the cuſtom of navigating on that river, by which means the boat of the plaintiffs was ſunk. The judge in a very able manner ſummed up the evidence, and informed the jury of the propriety of boats paſſing under ſuch circumſtances. On the contrary, a bad boat and indifferent ſet of horſes, or an indolent crew, might obſtruct or delay the whole trade of the river; and that rules and cuſtoms ſhould be attended to, to prevent the confuſion that muſt otherwiſe conſequently ariſe. The trial laſted about ten hours, and the jury gave their verdict for the plaintiffs, and damages to the amount of 463l 12s. 10d.

At Carliſle came on a trial, Johnſon *qui tam*, *v.* Gilbanks, clerk. This was a cauſe of great importance to the non-reſident clergy of this kingdom, being an action brought upon the ſtatute to compel the reſidence of the defendant, who lives in Cockermouth, upon his vicarage of Kirkland, in the county of Cumberland. The proſecution was brought in the name of a poor fellow, who lives twenty miles from the pariſh of Kirkland, the farmer of the attorney who managed the buſineſs of the proſecution in the country. This attorney was no other than the brother-in-law of the defendant. It was proved that the pariſhioners of Kirkland were univerſally ſatisfied with the diſcharge of the miniſterial duty by the curate; that the defendant, when reſident at Kirkland, had, in point of fact, laboured under bad health; and by a phyſician and a ſurgeon, who knew and attended the defendant, that he cannot reſide in the vicarage without hazard of his life, the houſe being built on the ſide of the higheſt mountain in England, and the defendant labouring under

the oppreſſion of a confirmed aſthma. The learned judge (Lawrence) explained the law to the jury—that the ſtatute was to compel the reſidence of the clergy—a ſalutary proviſion; that if this proſecution originated in malice, as had been ſuggeſted, that was not for the conſideration of the jury, as any man might proſecute upon the penal ſtatute; that the plea of health was for their conſideration, and if they thought proper to find for the plaintiff, they muſt enquire into the number of months proved. The jury found for the plaintiff—penalty 100l. The defendant's counſel tendered a bill of exceptions immediately.

SEPTEMBER 1.

Advice is received from Portſmouth, that, on Friday the 29th ult. the Impeteux French 74 gun ſhip caught fire. The flames ſpread with ſuch rapidity as ſeemed at firſt to threaten the deſtruction of the whole dockyard; and the Impeteux being moored near the powder magazine, alarmed the inhabitants ſo much, that great numbers of them fled in every direction from the town. The French priſoners in Porcheſter caſtle, amounting to near 5000, on the moment of the flames burſting out, gave a loud ſhout of Vive la republique! and were all night ſinging Ca ira, the Marſeillois hymn, &c. They expected every moment to be releaſed. They were, however, diſappointed; as the moſt proper caution was obſerved on the occaſion, and no ſtranger whatever was admitted into the dockyard. A Spaniard and four other perſons were apprehended on ſuſpicion of being concerned in ſetting the ſhip on fire; but it now appears to have happened through negligence.

SEPTEMBER 2.

On Saturday the Spaniſh miniſter attended a meeting of the Spaniſh merchants at Batſon's coffee-houſe, Cornhill. The purport of this meeting was to conſult on what ſteps were neceſſary to be taken upon the alarming and rapid progreſs made by the French in the maritime and plentiful province of Biſcay, ſince the capture of the paſs and the city of Fontarabia. By the letters received the latter end of laſt week, it appears that the French are pouring in freſh troops every day, and that they carry every thing before them, the inhabitants being neither capable nor willing to reſiſt. The cities of St. Sebaſtian and Toloſa were entered without firing a ſhot; at the latter the people went in crowds to meet the French, and the very ſame day, at a general aſſembly, the whole of the inhabitants ſolemnly accepted the French conſtitution, and ſwore to maintain it. The merchants, eccleſiaſtics, and nobles had fled, but all their property and effects were put into a ſtate of requiſition.

A body of 10,000 French, with a long train of artillery, and plenty of neceſſaries, marched the next day to ſecure all the paſſes in the country toward Bilboa, and another body were to follow them in a few days, for the avowed purpoſe of beſieging that important mercantile city; in fine, the whole province of Biſcay, with its trading ports, was in the moſt imminent danger of being ſurrendered to the carmagnols, unleſs ſome ſpeedy and powerful aſſiſtance could be obtained. The reſult of this meeting was to be laid before the miniſters.

SEPTEMBER 3.

Capt. Farmer, adjutant of the Leiceſterſhire militia, who was ſhot at Danbury camp (*See page 147*) is pronounced out of danger; but the aſſaſſin is not diſcovered.

SEPTEMBER 4.

On Tueſday, the corpſe of a gentleman, as it was proceeding in a hearſe to the burial ground, was arreſted by a ſheriff's officer and his followers, under a warrant, as uſual, granted againſt *the body*. The friends who followed, immediately left their coaches, and told the officer, if he choſe, he was welcome to the body, but he ſhould neither have *coffin*, *ſhroud*, nor any one particle in which the body was enveloped; and if he took them by force, he ſhould be indicted for a *highway-robbery*, as thoſe matters were the property of the executors; nay, they went further, and ſaid, that as the deceaſed had, by his will, bequeathed his body to the executors, no *execution* would hold againſt the corpſe, the proceſs muſt be againſt them. The bailiff, very properly, being perſuaded that the ſpirit of the law meant a *living*, and not a dead *body*, marched off without inſiſting on the *legality of his capture*. This is the firſt inſtance of the kind that has happened ſince the arreſt of the dead body of a ſheriff of London, not many years ago.

SEPTEMBER 5.

On Thurſday a court of common-council was held at Guildhall; preſent, the lord mayor, recorder, 11 aldermen, and a great many commoners; when Mr. Powell introduced motions of thanks to the lord mayor, the artillery company, light horſe volunteers, and the London aſſociation, for their able exertion in put-

ting an end to the late alarming riots; which were unanimouſly agreed to, and ordered to be publiſhed.

A ward rate and a county rate, ſimilar to thoſe in the year 1780, will be levied on the inhabitants of the metropolis, to make good the damages done to the different houſes, &c. occupied as recruiting offices.

SEPTEMBER 6.

Edinburgh, Sept. 3. On Wedneſday came on before the court of oyer and terminer in this city, the trial of Mr. Robert Watt for high treaſon. The particulars of the charge were, that he belonged to certain committees of the Friends of the People in Scotland, called the committee of union, and the committee of ways and means, whoſe profeſſed aim was, in conjunction with certain ſocieties in England, to form, at a certain time and place not ſpecified, a convention of perſons, whoſe avowed aim was to uſurp the powers of government, to compel the king and parliament by force to make laws altering the mode and duration of parliament, and thereby to ſubvert the conſtitution; with having, to effect this purpoſe, cauſed certain pikes and battle-axes to be fabricated; with having formed a deſign to ſeize the caſtle, the bank, the judges, &c. and with having attempted to ſeduce the ſoldiery from their allegiance, by cauſing a number of printed handbills, addreſſed to a regiment of fencibles, to be diſtributed at Dalkeith. After evidence had been adduced in ſupport of the facts, Mr. William Erſkine, counſel for the priſoner, ſaid, that he would reſt his defence upon the correſpondence carried on between the right hon. Henry Dundas, the lord advocate, and the priſoner, by which it would appear that he had attended the meetings of the friends of the people with no other view than to give information of their proceedings. A letter from the priſoner to Mr. ſecretary Dundas was read, which ſtated that, as he did not approve of the dangerous principles which then prevailed in Scotland, and was a friend to the conſtitution, he thought it his duty to communicate to him, as a good ſubject, what information he could procure of the proceedings of thoſe who ſtyled themſelves friends of the people. From an acquaintance with ſeveral of the leading men among them, he flattered himſelf he had this in his power; and he then went on to mention ſome of the names of thoſe leading men in Perth, Dundee, and Edinburgh. It concluded with enjoining ſecrecy. To this letter an anſwer was returned, which was alſo read. It acknowledged the receipt of Watt's letter, and, after expreſſing a hope that things were not ſo bad as he had repreſented, deſired him to go on, and he might depend upon his communications being kept perfectly ſecret. Another letter from Mr. Dundas to Mr. M'Ritchie, the priſoner's agent, was next read, in anſwer to one from Mr. M'Ritchie, requeſting of Mr. Dundas, what letters he had of the priſoner's. The anſwer was, that all the letters he had received from Mr. Watt had been delivered to the lord advocate.—The lord advocate then gave an account of this buſineſs: He had converſed with the priſoner, ſeveral times, at his own lodgings; and he had at one time given him ſome information which he thought of importance. This was reſpecting the diſaffection of ſome dragoons of Perth, which, upon inquiry, turned out to be ill-founded. In March 1793, an offer had been made to him to diſcloſe ſome important ſecrets, provided he would give the priſoner one thouſand pounds. This he abſolutely refuſed. However, ſome time after, the priſoner having informed him that he was much preſſed for money to diſcharge a bill of 30l. his lordſhip, who was then in London, not wiſhing he ſhould be diſtreſſed for ſuch a ſmall ſum, ſent an order for the payment of it. All this happened previouſly to the meeting of the convention; ſince which time, at leaſt ſince October laſt, he did not recollect ſeeing or having any connection with Mr. Watt.

Mr. Hamilton, counſel for the priſoner, dwelt long on the correſpondence between Mr. Dundas and Mr. Watt. He ſaid, the priſoner had not deſerted the ſervice in which he had engaged; but had not had an opportunity of exerciſing it till the very time he was apprehended. He was a ſpy for government; and it was well known, that a ſpy was obliged to aſſume not only the appearance of thoſe whoſe ſecrets he meant to reveal, but even to take part in their proceedings, in order to prevent a diſcovery. A ſpy in an army, he ſaid, was obliged, not only to aſſume the uniform of the enemy, but even to appear in arms; and it would be exceedingly hard indeed, if taken in a conflict, that he ſhould be puniſhed for diſcharging his duty.

After the lord preſident had ſummed up the evidence, the jury retired, at half paſt five in the morning, and, in about five minutes, returned with a verdict—Guilty.

The trial laſted near twenty-two hours.

Yeſterday came on the trial of Mr. David Downie, on the ſame charge, and nearly the ſame evidence being produced, he was found guilty; but the jury unanimouſly recommended him to mercy, on account of ſome favourable circumſtances in his caſe.

And this day, the priſoners being placed at the bar, the following awful ſentence was paſſed on them: 'Robert Watt and Daniel Downie, you have been found guilty of high treaſon by your peers; the ſentence of the court is therefore, That you be taken to the place from whence you came, from thence you ſhall be drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, on Wedneſday, the 15th of October, there to hang by your necks until you are both dead, your *bowels to be taken out and caſt in your face, and each of your bodies to be cut in four quarters, to be at the diſpoſal of his majeſty*; and the Lord have mercy upon your ſouls!'

SEPTEMBER 13.

A ſpecial commiſſion, under the great ſeal, for trying the priſoners in the Tower, accuſed of treaſonable practices, was received in town yeſterday from the lord chancellor at Weymouth. The commiſſioners appointed are, the lord chief juſtice of the court of common pleas, the lord chief baron, Mr. baron Hotham, Mr. juſtice Buller, Mr. juſtice Groſe, and Mr. juſtice Lawrence.

The precept has been iſſued for the ſummoning of the grand jury for the 21ſt of October; the court is expected to ſit on the 2d at Hicks' hall, and then to adjourn to the 16th, when the trials are to commence.

SEPTEMBER 19.

A dreadful fire took place at Boſton, in America, nearly at the ſame time as the late ſhocking fire at Ratcliffe, and from the ſame cauſe (the boiling over of a pitch-kettle), which burnt which ſuch rapidity as to conſume nearly one fourth of Boſton, deſtroying ſeveral wharfs and ſtores of merchandiſe in a few hours. The loſs of property is eſtimated at 200,000l. ſterling, and it is believed that the whole is uninſured; and is in conſequence attended with the almoſt total ruin of ſeveral very reſpectable families.

On Sunday night a fire broke out at ſome flour mills at Iſleworth, which raged furiouſly during the whole night, and entirely conſumed the ſame.

SEPTEMBER 20.

Yeſterday 12 priſoners were tried at the Old Bailey, one of whom was capitally convicted, viz. Patrick Murphy, for feloniouſly ravaging Iſabella Mackay, an infant about eight years of age; one was convicted of manſlaughter, viz. Robert Andrews, for feloniouſly killing and ſlaying William Pepper, and received ſentence to be impriſoned in Newgate 12 months, and pay a fine of 1s.

SEPTEMBER 23.

On Saturday, ſeventeen priſoners were tried at the Old Bailey, three of whom were capitally convicted, viz. Anthony Purchaſe and Richard Warnſbeck, for riotouſly, tumultuouſly, and feloniouſly aſſembling, together with divers other perſons, to the number of twelve and more, and unlawfully beginning to pull down and demoliſh the dwelling-houſe of Robert Layzell, in the pariſh of St. Andrew, Holborn; and Joſeph Strutt, for unlawfully, riotouſly, and tumultuouſly aſſembling, to the diſturbance of the public peace, at Charing-croſs, and beginning to demoliſh and pull down the dwelling-houſe of William Oſtliff.

And yeſterday, ten priſoners were tried at the Old Bailey, three of whom were capitally convicted, viz. Francis Roſs, for uttering a certain forged order for payment of money, with the name of J. R. Holland, dated at Glouceſter, the 21ſt of March 1794, and directed to ſir Robert Herries, and Co. bankers, London, for the payment of 10l. to H. Wilkinſon, eſq. with intent to defraud Hector Eſſex; John Cattapodi, for having forged a draft or order for payment of 5l. purporting to be the draft of J. R. Holland, dated Glouceſter, March 21, 1794, with intent to defraud Hugh Ramſden; and James Biggett, for tumultuouſly and riotouſly aſſembling on the 20th of Auguſt laſt, in Golden-lane, and being concerned with others in feloniouſly beginning to demoliſh and pull down the houſe of Luke Caſe, known by the ſign of the Black Raven.

SEPTEMBER 24.

Yeſterday, diſpatches were received at the Sierra Leone houſe from that ſettlement, dated the 15th of June, the 2d of July, and the 5th of Auguſt, by the company's ſhips the Ocean and the Amy, which have both arrived at Plymouth with African produce. It appears that the colony were advancing, and the affairs of the company improving in every reſpect, when a temporary interruption was given to the peace and order of the ſettlement by the turbulence of ſeveral diſaffected Nova Scotia ſettlers, who endeavoured to reſcue ſome refractory perſons of their own body, that

that had been arreſted for a breach of the peace. Both the individuals whoſe reſcue was demanded, and the ringleaders in the ſucceeding tumult, have been either taken up and ſent to England, or obliged to quit the colony.

The rains had been very ſevere for ſome months, and were beginning to abate; no deaths, however, had happened among the whites for many months, nor was any one among them dangerouſly ill, though ſeveral were indiſpoſed.

An expedition of about 450 miles circuit had been made to the interior country by two of the company's ſervants, one of whom, accompanied by another company's ſervant, encouraged by the ſucceſs of this adventure, was preparing to ſet out on a journey to Tumbuctoo, in the hope of being able to penetrate through the continent of Africa.

The laſt diſpatches are dated about three weeks ſubſequent to the tumult which has been mentioned, when the peace of the colony ſeemed to have been fully reſtored. All the company's ſhips which were expected to have reached Sierra Leone had arrived.

SEPTEMBER 25.

Yeſterday came on the following trial, which deſerves the more particular attention, becauſe, excluſive of the atrocious conduct of the proſecutor, it proved to be one of the incentives to the late riots in the metropolis: John Kerr, and John Ruggles having been out upon bail, ſurrendered themſelves in court, ſtanding indicted for a capital offence, in ſtealing from the perſon of Edward Barrett, on the 18th of Auguſt, at the ſign of the White Horſe, in Whitcomb-ſtreet, a ſilver watch, a pair of ſilver buckles, and ſeveral articles of wearing apparel.

Mr. Knapp, counſel for the proſecution, called Edward Barret, who depoſed, that he had been diſcharged from his majeſty's naval hoſpital at Deal; that, after having been detained by illneſs on the road, he arrived in town, and was walking over London-bridge, between ſeven and eight in the evening; that he enquired of an old woman where he could get lodgings; that ſhe took him to a houſe, but in what part of the town he could not tell, it was a public houſe, and the people in it appeared to be naval officers; that he was ſhewn up ſtairs into a dark room, the windows of which were barred with iron, and in which he was confined two nights, not being ſuffered to come out after he was firſt brought into the houſe; that he was then put into a coach, and carried to the White Horſe in Whitcomb-ſtreet; on his entering the White Horſe, he was dragged up ſtairs by ſix men into a garret, and knocked down, a rope put round his neck, and the articles ſtated in the indictment forcibly taken from him; that he was confined in the ſaid houſe a fortnight, during which time he was frequently beat; that the priſoner Kerr once beat him, and cut his face; that during the whole fortnight he was allowed nothing but bread and ſmall beer; that he is poſitive the priſoners were two of the ſix perſons who aſſiſted in dragging him up ſtairs, and robbing him as above; that at the cloſe of his confinement, a man with a wooden arm, who called himſelf a captain of a Weſt Indiaman, put a paper in his hand, and aſked him whether he had rather loſe his life or ſign a paper, which he found to be an atteſtation of his having been atteſted as a ſoldier; that he was then conveyed to Banbury.

This was the whole of the evidence to ſupport the proſecution, when

Mr. Fielding, counſel for the priſoners, called Mr. Shepperd, one of the clerks belonging to Queen-ſquare, who proved the atteſtation, and verily believed the proſecutor to be the man ſo atteſted.

Mr. ſerjeant Kirby, a magiſtrate at the above office, corroborated Mr. Shepperd's teſtimony.

Serjeant Watſon and Edward Huckenbottom, whoſe evidence are the ſame, depoſed, that on the 27th of June laſt, they enliſted the priſoner, Edward Barrett, at the Swan in Eaſt Smithfield; that he remained there three days, during which time he was not at all confined; that he (the witneſs) then took him to the houſe of Joſeph Hambledon, the White Horſe, in Whitcomb-ſtreet, and that, at the time he carried him there, he had neither watch nor buckles.

Henry Joel, a Jew cloathſman, depoſed, that he knows the proſecutor, Barrett; and that after he was enliſted, he ſent for him to the White Horſe, where he bought his (the proſecutor's) jacket, ſhoes, &c. he then being dreſſed in his regimentals.

John Copper and John Ritchie, two recruits, depoſed, that when at Banbury, they were ſworn againſt by the proſecutor, as being acceſſaries in the above robbery, for which they were impriſoned ſeven weeks, but were afterward admitted evidence for the priſoners; and that Barrett, the whole time he was at the White Horſe, was not at all confined, but was continually in a ſtate of intoxication.

Mary

Mary Garland, ſervant to the priſoner Kerr, remembers Barrett being at their houſe, during which time he had his liberty, and was always drunk.

The jury expreſſing themſelves perfectly ſatisfied with the evidence adduced on behalf of the priſoners, Mr. Fielding and Mr. Knowles waved calling any more witneſſes, though they informed the court they had fourteen more of great reſpectability, who could corroborate the teſtimony given.

Judge Aſhhurſt was about to ſum up the evidence, when the jury, to prevent his lordſhip that trouble, requeſted the foreman to acquaint him, they had long been ſatisfied, and agreed in their verdict of—*Not Guilty*.

The judge immediately ordered the proſecutor to be taken into cuſtody, and Meſſrs. Kerr and Ruggles bound over to proſecute him for perjury.

BIRTHS.

VIſcounteſs Mountſtuart, a ſon.

Lady of ſir Alexander Grant, bart. a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

EARL of Ilcheſter, to miſs Maria Digby, daughter of the late dean of Durham.

Rev. Charles Hales, to miſs Anna Maria Byng, daughter of the hon. John Byng.

Lord Saye and Sele, to the hon. miſs Eardley.

Thomas Anſon, eſq. of Shugborough, Staffordſhire, to miſs Ann Coke, daughter of Thomas William Coke, M. P. for Norfolk.

DEATHS.

GEorge Colman, ſenior, eſq. patentee of the Theatre Royal in the Haymarket.

John lord Elphinſtone.

The earl of Mayo, archbiſhop of Tuam.

Count Mercid'Argenteau, the Imperial miniſter on a private embaſſy.

The lady of Thomas Pinckney, eſq. the American ambaſſador.

Heſter viſcounteſs Malpas, relict of George viſcount Malpas.

Sir James Johnſtone, bart. M. P. for Weymouth.

Right hon. John Hely Hutchinſon, principal ſecretary of ſtate for Ireland, and provoſt of Trinity College, Dublin.

Lady dowager Rous.

Sir Robert Mackworth, bart.

Cardinal de Bernis, one of the miniſters of France, in the reign of Louis XV, and afterward ambaſſador to Rome.

In the King's-bench priſon, Andrew Robinſon Bowes, who married the counteſs of Strathmore.

Sir Hugh Williams, bart. M. P. for Beaumaris.

Princeſs Chriſtiana of Mecklenburgh, ſiſter to the queen.

PROMOTIONS.

MArquis of Titchfield—Lord-lieutenant of Middleſex.

Earl of Cheſterfield and earl of Leiceſter—Poſtmaſters-general.

Major-general Lake—Governor of Limerick.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

AUGUST 30.

JAmes Cotter Bagſhaw, of Savage-gardens, cornfactor.

Eliſabeth Purcell, and Thomas Wingfield Purcell, of New-ſtreet, Fetter-lane, glaſs-dealer.

SEPTEMBER 2.

William Barwick, of Liverpool, upholſterer.

John Lewis, of Llanfantfraid, in Denbighſhire, timber-merchant.

John Holmes, and Henry Holmes, of Alderſgate-ſtreet, grocers.

Thomas Taylor, of Mancheſter, houſe-builder.

SEPTEMBER 6.

Benjamin Law, of Stamford, in Lincolnſhire, draper.

William Booth, of Norwich, wholeſale linen-draper.

Edward Buck, of Oxendon-ſtreet, victualler.

Atkinſon Wilkin, of Seething-lane, cheeſemonger.

John Pewſey, of Harp-alley, Fleet-market, painter.

Edward Haſelden, of Gravel-lane, in Surry, baker.

SEPTEMBER 9.

William Howel, of Chepſtow, Monmouthſhire, brandy-merchant.

Samuel Hallen, and John Hallen, of Wedneſbury, in Staffordſhire, iron-maſters.

Benjamin Parfitt, and Joſeph Webb, of Briſtol, builders.

William Walker, of Dewſbury, in Yorkſhire, clothmaker.

SEPTEMBER 13.

Robert Alburn, of Queen-ſtreet, merchant.

Arthur

Arthur Blackett, of South Audley-ſtreet, St. George, Hanover-ſquare, apothecary.

John Wood the younger, of Caſtleſhaw, in Yorkſhire, clothier.

Richard Higginſon, of Mancheſter, dyer.

SEPTEMBER 16.

Thomas Pattiſon, of Tadcaſter, in Yorkſhire, common-carrier.

John Bolton, of Norwich, merchant.

Thomas Howard, of Romford, in Eſſex, innholder.

SEPTEMBER 20.

John Gill, of St. Mary, Newington, Surry, ſcrivener.

Anna Maria Bell, and Rachael Williams, of Golden-ſquare, milliners.

Francis William Wymer, of Norwich, brandy-merchant.

William Howel, and John Seys, of Chepſtow, in Monmouthſhire, brandy-merchants.

Thomas Beniſon, of Stockport, in Cheſhire, corn-manufacturer.

William Bright, of Foleſhill, Coventry, worſted-manufacturer.

Peter Whitaker, of Mancheſter, machine-maker.

Thomas Hatfield the younger, of Chapel-in-le-Frith, in Derbyſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

George Darbyſhire, of Freeman's-court, Cornhill, jeweller.

SEPTEMBER 22.

Mary Mellor, of Mancheſter, ſhopkeeper.

George Bell, of Haſſingden, in Lancaſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

Joſeph Taylor, of Birmingham, carpenter.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

WYNDHAM's Picture of the Iſle of Wight, 8vo. 6s.

Briſſot's Commerce of America with Europe, 8vo. 7s.

Alderſon's Eſſay on the Sumach, and its Efficacy in Paralyſis, 1s. 6d.

Inſtructions for preſerving various Subjects of Natural Hiſtory, 8vo. 4s. 6d. ſewed.

Montefiore's Account of the late Expedition to Bulam in Africa; 2s.

Sydney St. Aubyn, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Shaw's Book-keeping epitomiſed, 1s. 6d.

Hett's Miſcellanies, 12mo. 3s. ſewed.

Fauſt's Catechiſm of Health, 2s.

Tales of Elam, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Shannon's Obſervations on Medicines for Diſeaſes in Hot Climates, 8vo. 7s. 6d.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN.

September 23, 1794.

By the Standard Wincheſter Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	54	1	37	2	30	9	25	0
Surry	50	8	37	4	30	0	24	8
Hertford	49	5	36	3	32	0	25	7
Bedford	46	10	37	4	29	6	23	3
Huntingdon	46	7	—	—	29	6	20	4
Northampton	48	6	37	0	29	0	22	8
Rutland	53	0	38	0	30	0	22	0
Leiceſter	50	5	—	—	34	7	25	0
Nottingham	58	1	39	9	36	8	24	3
Derby	56	4	—	—	40	0	25	0
Stafford	53	5	—	—	34	8	22	2
Salop	55	7	40	2	32	10	21	10
Hereford	52	3	44	10	38	3	24	10
Worceſter	57	6	46	8	35	10	29	1
Warwick	57	6	44	0	39	6	30	8
Wilts	47	8	—	—	33	2	25	10
Berks	51	9	42	4	31	7	26	10
Oxford	51	6	—	—	34	6	26	8
Bucks	50	2	—	—	31	6	24	8
Brecon	55	2	42	8	30	5	27	8
Montgomery	49	8	—	—	20	10	17	7
Radnor	54	6	—	—	32	0	22	3

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	50	8	36	0	31	6	24	10
Kent	49	0	—	—	30	0	23	3
Suſſex	46	4	—	—	30	0	25	0
Suffolk	50	8	34	3	29	11	23	9
Cambridge	47	5	31	2	27	11	20	10
Norfolk	48	3	—	—	28	1	21	4
Lincoln	50	9	38	0	32	4	20	9
York	49	8	38	9	33	0	19	11
Durham	48	5	—	—	29	0	19	2
Northumberland	45	8	36	0	24	10	17	4
Cumberland	53	0	41	0	29	3	19	11
Weſtmorland	52	2	43	0	29	0	21	7
Lancaſter	49	2	—	—	—	—	21	5
Cheſter	48	0	—	—	—	—	19	3
Flint	53	4	—	—	42	7	19	2
Denbigh	55	9	—	—	—	—	18	8
Angleſea	50	0	—	—	32	0	16	0
Carnarvon	51	8	41	0	30	4	16	8
Merioneth	61	9	46	8	—	—	18	9
Cardigan	48	8	36	0	25	10	14	2
Pembroke	42	10	—	—	29	3	—	—
Carmarthen	48	0	—	—	28	0	14	0
Glamorgan	53	11	—	—	32	5	17	4
Glouceſter	54	1	—	—	35	2	25	10
Somerſet	55	8	—	—	25	4	18	8
Monmouth	50	8	—	—	—	—	—	—
Devon	53	2	—	—	25	2	18	9
Cornwall	51	10	—	—	27	5	17	6
Dorſet	51	2	—	—	33	0	—	—
Hants	49	4	—	—	31	8	24	9

Peck Loaf, 22. 7d.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from AUGUST 28, to SEPTEMBER 26, 1794, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot. Tic.
28	163 ½	67 ⅞	66½a⅝	84 ⅞	101 ⅛	20	9 ⅜	197 ¼	14s pr.	70 ¼		66 ½	1½dif.	
29	163 ½	67 ⅞	66½a⅝	85 ⅛	101 ¼	20 ⅛	9 ⅜	197 ⅜	15				1 ¼	
30	164 ⅛	67 ⅛	67a⅛	85 ⅛	101 ⅜	20 ¼	9 ⅜	198	16				1 ¼	
1	164	67 ⅛	67a66¼	85 ⅛	101 ⅜	20 ⅛	9 ⅜		17				1 ⅛	
2														
3	164	shut.	66½a⅝	85 ⅛	101 ⅜	20 ⅛	9 ⅜	197 ¼	18		shut.		1 ¼	
4	shut.		66½a⅝	85 ⅛	101 ⅜	20 ⅛	9 ⅜	197 ½				66 ½	1 ¼	
5	164 ½		66½a67	85 ⅛	101 ⅜	20 ⅛	9 ⅜						1 ¼	
6			67½a66⅞	85 ⅛	101 ⅜	shut.	9 ½		19			66 ⅞	1 ⅛	
8	164 ½		66 a67	85 ⅛	101 ⅜				20	71 ½			1 ⅛	
9	164 ⅛		67a66¼	85 ⅛	101 ⅜		shut.		19			66 ½	1 ⅛	19 10 6
10	164		66½a⅝	84 ⅞	102				19				1 ⅛	19 12 0
11	163 ½		66½a⅝	shut.	101 ⅞			196 ½	18				1 ⅛	19 13 6
12	163 ¼		66½a⅝		102				16				1 ⅛	19 14 6
13			66½a⅝		102			196 ¼	15	71 ¼			1 ⅛	19 17 0
15	163 ½		66½a⅝		101 ⅜				15				1 ⅛	19 17 0
16	161 ⅛		66½a65⅝		101 ⅜			195 ¼	15				1 ⅛	19 15 6
17	160 ½		65½a⅝		101 ⅜			194 ¼	15				1 ⅛	19 13 0
18	160 ½		65½a⅝		100 ⅞			194 ¼	15			65 ⅛	1 ⅛	19 12 0
19	160 ¼		65½a⅝		100 ⅞			195 ¼	15				1 ⅛	
20	160		65½a⅝		100 ¾			194 ¼					1 ⅛	
22														
23	159		65½a65		100 ⅜				15			65	1 ⅛	19 12 0
24			65½a65		100 ½			195 ¾	16				1 ⅛	19 15 0
25	158 ¼		65½		100 ⅞								1 ⅛	19 14 6
26			65a64⅛		100 ⅛				15				1 ⅛	

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

Canons, in Middlesex.

An Account of the Pariſh of WHITCHURCH, or Little STANMORE, in Middleſex: With a Perſpective View of CANONS, the elegant Villa of Patrick O'Kelly, Eſq.

THE pariſh of Whitchurch, or Little Stanmore, is ſituated near the north-weſt extremity of the county of Middleſex, at the diſtance of about eight miles from Hyde-Park-Corner, on the original road to St. Alban's, and contains the weſt ſide of the ſtreet which forms the little town of Edgware. This part of the country is remarkable for being almoſt entirely appropriated to the purpoſe of ſupplying the metropolis with hay.

At the commencement of the preſent century, Whitchurch was ſuddenly raiſed to a degree of importance to which it had before no pretenſions, by the magnificent palace erected here by James Brydges the firſt duke of Chandos, who had married the daughter of ſir Thomas Lake, baronet, of Canons, in this pariſh. The expence of erecting and furniſhing this ſuperb manſion amounted to two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds. It was ornamented with a profuſion of marble, and the ſteps of the principal ſtaircaſe were each compoſed of one entire piece of that coſtly material, meaſuring twenty-two feet in length. The locks and hinges of the doors were of gold or ſilver, and all the decorations and furniture were in the moſt ſplendid ſtyle. The eſtabliſhment of the houſehold was in no reſpect inferior to the grandeur of the habitation, and extended even to the ceremonies of religion, which were performed with every appendage of cathedral pomp; a full band of vocal and inſtrumental performers (after the manner of the Roman catholic churches abroad) was engaged for that purpoſe; and the whole was under the direction of Handel and Pepuſch.

It has been a diſputed point, whether the duke of Chandos adopted this plan of living with more than regal grandeur, from a laudable deſire of rendering his riches ſubſervient to the encouragement of the fine arts, or from a vain and oſtentatious diſplay of that opulence which he poſſeſſed without either taſte or judgment. Mr. Pope (from no very exalted motives perhaps) has contributed to fix the public opinion to the diſadvantage of the duke, in his celebrated deſcription of Timon's Villa:

At Timon's Villa let us paſs a day,
Where all cry out, 'What ſums are thrown away!'
So proud, ſo grand; of that ſtupendous air,
Soft and agreeable come never there.
Greatneſs, with Timon, dwells in ſuch a draught
As brings all Brobdingnag before your thought.
To compaſs this, his building is a town,
His pond an ocean, his parterre a down:
Who but muſt laugh, the maſter when he ſees,
A puny inſect, ſhivering at a breeze!
Lo, what huge heaps of littleneſs around!
The whole, a labour'd quarry above ground,
Two Cupids ſquirt before: a lake behind
Improves the keenneſs of the northern wind.
His gardens next your admiration call,
On every ſide you look, behold the wall!
No pleaſing intricacies intervene,
No artful wildneſs to perplex the ſcene;
Grove nods at grove, each alley has a brother,
And half the platform juſt reflects the other.
The ſuffering eye inverted nature ſees,
Trees cut to ſtatues, ſtatues thick as trees;
With here a fountain, never to be play'd;
And there a ſummer-houſe that knows no ſhade;
Here Amphitrite ſails through myrtle bowers;
There gladiators fight, or die in flowers;
Unwater'd ſee the drooping ſea-horſe mourn,
And ſwallows rooſt in Nilus' duſty urn.
My lord advances with majeſtic mien,
Smit with the mighty pleaſure to be ſeen:

But

But ſoft—by regular approach—not yet—
Firſt through the length of yon hot terrace ſweat;
And when up ten ſteep ſlopes you've dragg'd your thighs,
Juſt at his ſtudy-door he'll bleſs your eyes.
His ſtudy! with what authors is it ſtor'd?
In books, not authors, curious is my lord;
To all their dated backs he turns you round;
Theſe Aldus printed, thoſe Du Sueil has bound.
Lo, ſome are vellom, and the reſt as good
For all his lordſhip knows, but they are wood.
For Locke or Milton, 'tis in vain to look,
Theſe ſhelves admit not any modern book.
And now the chapel's ſilver bell you hear,
That ſummons you to all the pride of prayer:
Light quirks of muſic, broken and unever,
Make the ſoul dance upon a jig to heaven.
On painted ceilings you devoutly ſtare,
Where ſprawl the ſaints of Verrio or Lagurre,
Or gilded clouds in fair expanſion lie,
And bring all paradiſe before your eye.
To reſt, the cuſhion and ſoft dean invite,
Who never mentions hell to ears polite.
But hark! the chiming clocks to dinner call;
A hundred footſteps ſcrape the marble hall:
The rich buffet well-colour'd ſerpents grace,
And gaping tritons ſpew to waſh your face.
Is this a dinner? this a genial room?
No, 'tis a temple, and a hecatomb.
A ſolemn ſacrifice perform'd in ſtate,
You drink by meaſure, and to minutes eat.
So quick retires each flying courſe, you'd ſwear
Sancho's dread doctor and his wand were there.
Between each act the trembling ſalvers ring,
From ſoup to ſweet-wine, and God bleſs the king.
In plenty ſtarving, tantaliz'd in ſtate,
And complaiſantly help'd to all I hate,
Treated, careſs'd, and tir'd, I take my leave,
Sick of his civil pride from morn to eve;
I curſe ſuch laviſh coſt, and little ſkill,
And ſwear no day was ever paſt ſo ill.
Yet hence the poor are cloath'd, the hungry fed;
Health to himſelf, and to his infants bread,
The labourer bears: what his hard heart denies,
His charitable vanity ſupplies.
Another age ſhall ſee the golden ear
Imbrown the ſlope, and nod on the parterre,
Deep harveſt bury all his pride has plann'd,
And laughing Ceres reaſſume the land.

The four laſt lines of this keen and elegant ſatire prove to be truly prophetic; but the whole ſubjected the poet himſelf to many ſevere animadverſions, not only with reſpect to the juſtice of more than one of his ſarcaſms as unfounded in fact, but to the motives which led to this perſonal attack of a nobleman, whoſe munificence he himſelf is ſaid to have experienced in no inconſiderable degree. But for a diſcuſſion of this point we muſt refer to ſome 'New Hiſtorical Anecdotes of Canons' in our Magazine for September 1792.

The fate of Canons unqueſtionably afforded room for the moſt ſerious reflections on the inſtability of all terreſtrial grandeur. The houſe was built in the year 1712; and, notwithſtanding three ſucceſſive ſhocks which his fortune received by his concerns in the African company, and the Miſſiſſippi and South Sea ſpeculations, in 1718, 1719, and 1720, the duke continued to reſide in it with ſome degree of ſplendour, till his death, in 1744. But his eſtate was much incumbered; on which account, the earl of Aileſbury, father-in-law to Henry the ſecond duke, and one of the truſtees in whom it was veſted, determined to part with a princely palace, which required an eſtabliſhment too expenſive for the duke's income; and as the ſame reaſon prevented any one from purchaſing it with a view to reſidence, the whole was demoliſhed in 1747, and the materials were ſold by auction in ſeparate lots, which produced, after deducting the expences of ſale, eleven thouſand pounds. The marble ſtaircaſe, in

parti-

particular, was purchaſed by the late earl of Cheſterfield for his houſe in May Fair; the fine columns were bought for the portico of Wanſtead Houſe, in Eſſex; and the equeſtrian ſtatue of George the firſt, one of the numerous ſculptures that adorned the grounds, is now the ornament of Leiceſter-ſquare. One of the principal lots was purchaſed by Mr. William Hallett, then a cabinet-maker in Long-acre, who having likewiſe purchaſed the eſtate at Canons, erected the preſent villa with the materials that compoſed his lot.

William Hallett, eſquire, grandſon to the purchaſer of the eſtate, ſold this villa in 1786, to Mr. Dennis O'Kelly, a ſucceſsful adventurer on the turf, who left it, at his death, to his nephew, Patrick O'Kelly, eſquire, the preſent proprietor. It is a neat and elegant ſtructure; and is furniſhed with great taſte; and contains ſome good pictures, among which is an elegant one, by Stubbs, of the celebrated horſe Maſque, at the age of twenty. Some beautiful paddocks, contiguous to the houſe, are appropriated to the uſe of brood mares and their colts, as well as for the peaceful retreat of ſome famous race-horſes. Here expired Eclipſe; and here now roves at eaſe the aged Duncannon.

The pariſh church, which is an elegant little ſtructure, is all that now remains of the magnificence of the former Canons. The body of it, the exterior of which is very plain, was built by the duke, who would have erected a new tower alſo; but the pariſhioners having ſold their bells, in expectation that this munificent nobleman would provide a new ſet, his grace was ſo offended at this circumſtance, that he would proceed no farther in his deſign, than decorating the inſide. The ſituation of the organ is a remarkable deviation from the general cuſtom, it being placed at the eaſt end of the church, in a receſs behind the altar, and not much elevated above it: it is viewed through an arch ſupported by Corinthian columns, which forms an opening over the communion table, and has a very good effect. The whole is enriched by paintings from a variety of ſubjects in the ſacred ſcriptures; and, at the weſt end, is a handſome gallery, which was erected for the uſe of the duke and his family. There is likewiſe a very elegant chamber, containing the monuments of the Brydges family. Paſſing through an antichamber which communicates immediately with the church, it is approached by a handſome flight of ſteps, and immediately in view, at the entrance, appears the very coſtly monument erected to the firſt duke, or, as the people here emphatically ſtyle him, *The Grand Duke*, and his two firſt wives; on which is the following inſcription:

In hopes of a joyful reſurrection,
Here lies interred the body of the moſt noble
James Brydges, duke of Chandos,
Marquis and earl of Carnarvon, viſcount Wilton, baron Chandos of Sudley, and baronet, member of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy-council, lord lieutenant and cuſtos rotulorum of the county of Radnor, high ſteward of Cantrelemenith, chancellor of the univerſity of St. Andrew's in Scotland, ranger of Enfield Chaſe, and one of the governors of the Charter Houſe; who was born January 6, 1673, and departed this life 1744.
Whoſe modeſty ordered all encomiums on his tomb to be avoided; yet juſtice to his memory and truth tells the reader, that if a life ſpent in conſtant application to buſineſs, which tended more to the good of his country and friends than his own, a whole life paſſed in acts of the greateſt humanity and charity, forgiving every one, and giving to the utmoſt of his power; ending in an old age dedicated to patience, reſignation, and piety, deſerves from mankind gratitude and love, they are moſt ſtrictly his due.
He married, firſt, Mary, daughter of ſir Thomas Lake of Canons, in Middleſex, by whom he left iſſue the moſt noble Henry duke of Chandos. His ſecond wife was Caſſandra, daughter of ſir Francis Willoughby of Wallaton, and ſiſter of Thomas lord Willoughby.

His third wife was Lydia Catherine, daughter of John Vanhattem, esq. and widow of sir Thomas Devall, who was member of parliament, and died in the year 1714.

In Whitchurch are seven almshouses endowed by dame Jane Lake of Canons, and a freeschool by one of the Brydges family.

LEUCADEA, *a Spanish Tale, translated from the French of M. de* Florian.

ONE beautiful moonlight night, in the midst of summer, an aged gentleman was returning, with his family, from a walk in the neighbourhood of Toledo. His wife and he walked arm in arm; they were accompanied by their daughter, who was about seventeen, and by a female servant, their only domestic. This aged gentleman, who was of a decayed family, but of the most exemplary character, was named don Carlo; his wife, donna Maria; and his daughter, whose figure was charming, and her mind more beautiful still, was called Leucadea.

At this instant, appeared a young cavalier, who was going to the promenade. His name was Rodolpho: he was one of those dissipated characters, who imagine that noble birth and a rich inheritance are sufficient to dispense with virtuous sentiments and regulated conduct. He had just quitted the table; he was encircled by his libertine companions; and heated, like them, with wine. They soon came near don Carlo and his family. It was like the rencounter of wolves with a flock of sheep. They stopped: they looked with an air of insolence on the good mother and her daughter. One of them proceeds to familiarities with the servant. The aged gentleman interfering, is insulted. With a trembling hand, he draws his sword. Rodolpho, laughing, disarms him; seizes the helpless Leucadea, and forcibly carries her toward the city, escorted by his guilty companions.

While don Carlo was uttering imprecations against these gay ruffians, donna Maria screaming with terror, and the servant in a state of distraction, the unfortunate Leucadea was in a swoon in the arms of her ravisher, who having reached his own house, opened a private door, dismissed his friends, and carried his victim into his own apartment. He enters without a light, without being seen by his servants. He shuts the door; and, before Leucadea recovers her senses, completes the greatest crime which intoxication and brutality can suggest.

Rodolpho having thus violated the honour of a helpless maid, remained a moment undecided what step to take. He felt, no doubt, a sentiment of remorse when Leucadea came to herself. The room was extremely dark: she sighs; she trembles; and faintly exclaims, 'My mother! my mother! where are you? My father! speak—where am I? What is this bed?—O God! O my God! hast thou forsaken me? Does any one hear me? Am I in my tomb?—Ah! wretched creature!—Would to Heaven!—

At this instant, Rodolpho snatched her hand: the unhappy beauty screams out, rushes from him, and sinks on the floor: Rodolpho follows her. Then, upon her knees, sobbing bitterly, and with accents of unutterable woe, 'Oh!' said she, 'Whoever you are, you have rendered me the most unfortunate and despicable of creatures! If you yet retain one sentiment of honour, if you are susceptible of the least compassion, I entreat, I conjure you, to terminate my existence. You have only this way left to repair the injury you have done me. You may do it with the most perfect safety: not a soul is present; your crime will be a secret: it will be infinitely less atrocious than what you have done. I will forgive, I will forgive you all, if you will grant me that death which is now my only refuge.

Rodolpho, without anſwering a word, left his chamber, ſhut the door, and haſtened, no doubt, to be certain that no perſon in the houſe, or in the ſtreet, could oppoſe the execution of his deſign.

He was no ſooner gone than Leucadea roſe, went to one ſide of the room, and feeling about, found a window, the ſhutters of which ſhe opened, determined to throw herſelf out of it. She was prevented by a ſtrong lattice, through which the moon, in all her ſplendour, illumined the apartment. Leucadea ſtood motionleſs, a prey to her reflections: then looking round her, ſhe carefully examined every thing in the room, the furniture, the pictures, the tapeſtry; and perceiving a crucifix of gold on an oratory, ſhe took it, and concealed it in her boſom: then ſhutting the window, ſhe waited in darkneſs for the barbarian who was to decide her fate.

Rodolpho ſoon returned: he was alone, and ſtill without a light. He approached Leucadea, blindfolded her with a handkerchief, took her by the hand without ſpeaking, and without her daring to utter a word, brought her into the ſtreet, and, after a variety of turnings, ſtopped with her near the great church. Here he quitted her, and haſtily retired.

It was ſome time before Leucadea could venture to remove the handkerchief that blinded her. At laſt, not hearing the leaſt noiſe, ſhe took it off, and found herſelf near the great church. Her firſt idea was to fall upon her knees, and addreſs a fervent prayer to God. She then roſe, and with trembling ſteps returned to her father's houſe.

The unhappy father and his inconſolable wife were at this inſtant lamenting their loſt daughter. They hear a knock; don Carlo runs to the door, and, opening it, beholds Leucadea: he claſps her in his arms, with an exclamation of undeſcribable joy.

The mother haſtens to this affecting ſcene: ſhe flings herſelf into the arms of her daughter: both embrace, both ſpeak to her at once: they call her their beloved child, their only joy, the ſole ſupport of their declining years. They bedew her cheeks with tears; they aſk and repeat a thouſand queſtions: they allow her not a moment to anſwer them.

Leucadea, after the firſt tender emotions were over, threw herſelf at her father's feet, and with downcaſt eyes, and bluſhing face, related what had happened. Overpowered by her feelings, ſhe was ſcarcely able to finiſh the melancholy recital.

The aged parent raiſes her up, and folds her to his boſom: 'My dear daughter,' ſaid he, 'guilt alone conſtitutes diſhonour, and thou art innocent. Interrogate thy conſcience: can it reproach thee with one improper thought, or one word or action unbecoming thy ſex? No, my beloved daughter, thou art ſtill the ſame, thou art ſtill my virtuous Leucadea: my paternal heart loves and reſpects thee, to a greater degree, perhaps, than before thy misfortune.'

Leucadea, comforted by theſe aſſurances, could now lift up her eyes to her father. She ſhewed him the crucifix, which ſhe had taken away, in the hope that it might one day enable her to diſcover her raviſher. Don Carlo took the crucifix, which he contemplated ſome time in ſilence, the tears bedewing his cheeks. What were his emotions none but a paternal heart can conceive. When he found ſome utterance, his expreſſions breathed the deep-felt ſenſibility of wounded honour—of an injury received in the deareſt part of himſelf. His emotions pointed with deeper anguiſh the grief of Leucadea. The good donna Maria, at length, ſomewhat calmed his mind; ſhe took the crucifix from him; and the unhappy father himſelf endeavoured to forget his anger, that he might again go and comfort his daughter.

After ſome days, often ſpent in tears, the unfortunate Leucadea recovered, in ſome meaſure, her peace of

of mind: but ſhe never left the houſe; as if apprehenſive that every one ſhe met would read her diſhonour in her countenance. Alas! ſhe had ſoon more diſtreſſing motives for concealment.

Leucadea diſcovered that ſhe was pregnant: her parents could with difficulty prevail upon her to preſerve a life that ſhe now conſidered as inſupportable. For many days ſhe would ſcarce take any nouriſhment. Her affection, however, for her parents, and a ſenſe of the important duties that would reſult from her new ſituation as a mother, at laſt induced her to acquieſce with reſignation in her melancholy lot.

As ſoon as the expected period approached, don Carlo and his wife hired a ſmall country-houſe, to which they retired without any ſervants. Even the aſſiſtance of a midwife was not called for: that office was performed by donna Maria herſelf. Leucadea was delivered of a beautiful boy. He was carried to the baptiſmal font by don Carlo, who gave him his own name. Leucadea, who had looked forward to her new ſituation with anguiſh, now felt all the force of maternal tenderneſs; and the ſight of her ſon became even ſo neceſſary to her exiſtence, that it was determined to keep him in the houſe, and to make him paſs for the great-nephew of don Carlo.

The family returned to Toledo, where not one had ſuſpected the motive of their abſence. The adventure of Rodolpho was unknown. He had left his native city ſoon after, for Naples; and Leucadea, univerſally reſpected and beloved, enjoyed the happineſs of the maternal ſtate, with the honours due to the character of the moſt exemplary virgin.

The little Carlo grew apace, and became more charming every day. His underſtanding, his manners, were beyond his age, which was not more than ſeven years. One day, when there was to be a great bull-fight, he ſtood at the door of the houſe, in order to ſee the young cavaliers, who were going to fight the bulls. He was alone: he wanted to croſs the ſtreet, to ſee a party of them who were coming on the oppoſite ſide: in an inſtant, one of the horſes ran away with his rider, and rode over the poor child, who lay proſtrate on the pavement, ſcreaming, and weltering in the blood which flowed from a wound in his head. The people crowded round him; and, on a ſudden, a venerable gentleman, followed by a number of ſervants, who were attending him to the bull-fight, ſaw the child, ran to him, took him in his arms, kiſſed him, wiped the blood from his face, ſent one of his ſervants for the beſt ſurgeon in the city, and haſtening through the crowd, took the child to his own houſe.

Don Carlo, and his wife and daughter, ſoon heard of the accident. The latter ran into the ſtreet, like a diſtracted woman, crying out for her ſon. Her father with difficulty followed her, entreating her, in vain, not to call him her ſon. Every one pitied them, and told them the way which the old gentleman had taken. They ran, they flew to his houſe. They were conducted to the chamber where the child was already under the ſurgeon's hands. Leucadea arrives the firſt: ſhe runs to her child: ſhe folds, ſhe preſſes him to her boſom, bedews him with tears of joy, and deſires to ſee the wound. The ſweet child, who was ſtill crying, begins to ſmile, the moment he ſees his mother: he careſſes her in his wonted way, and aſſures her he is not ill. The ſurgeon examines the wound, and pronounces it not dangerous. Leucadea makes him repeat it a hundred times, while don Carlo and his wife return thanks to the gentleman for his humanity, tell him that the child is their great-nephew; and endeavour to excuſe the extreme affection which their daughter evinces for him.

When the ſurgeon had retired, Leucadea ſat on the bedſide, and looking round the room, what was her

her ſurpriſe in recollecting the ſame furniture, the ſame pictures, which ſhe had obſerved by the light of the moon! She beholds the ſame oratory from which ſhe had taken the crucifix; the tapeſtry is the ſame: not a ſingle article is changed. Leucadea has not a doubt that ſhe is in the houſe, in the very chamber to which her raviſher had conveyed her.

She was thunder-ſtruck at this ſight; paleneſs overſpread her face; it was ſucceeded by a glowing bluſh; and ſhe fainted away. Every one flew to her aſſiſtance; and ſhe is conveyed to her own houſe. Don Carlo would have brought the child away; but the humane and hoſpitable gentleman oppoſed it, entreating that they would leave him till he was perfectly cured. Don Carlo, intent on his daughter, yields to theſe entreaties, and returns to his own houſe.

The moment they were alone, Leucadea diſcloſed what ſhe had ſeen, and aſſured her parents that this was the houſe to which her raviſher had carried her. Don Carlo determined immediately to procure every information concerning a perſon, who was now ſo very intereſting to him. He knew already that the name of the humane gentleman was don Diego de Santelana: he ſoon learns that his only ſon was named Rodolpho; that this ſon had been at Naples near ſeven years; and that his reſidence in Italy, it was ſaid, had rendered him as prudent and regular as he had before been wild and diſorderly. It was added, that this young man was the moſt handſome and accompliſhed in the city, and that he would have one of the greateſt fortunes in Caſtile.

Don Carlo related this information to his wife and daughter. They could not doubt that this Rodolpho was the perſon who had diſhonoured Leucadea, but was it poſſible to ſuppoſe that he would repair this outrage, by giving his hand to a young lady, of a noble family indeed, but almoſt without a fortune? Don Carlo could not conceive it poſſible, and was already meditating vengeance. Leucadea entreated him to leave the management of this affair to her. Her father had ſome difficulty to grant this requeſt; but he yielded, at laſt, to her preſſing entreaties, and Leucadea became more compoſed.

She reflected maturely on the ſteps ſhe ought to take. Her ſon was ſtill at don Diego's, and was treated by that good man with the utmoſt tenderneſs. His wound was cured; and his mother, don Carlo, and donna Maria, ſpent whole days with the amiable boy.

One day, that Leucadea was alone with don Diego, while this good man held little Carlo in his arms, kiſſed him, careſſed him, and ſpoke with complacency of the warm and tender partiality that attached him to the child, Leucadea could not refrain from tears, and endeavoured, in vain, to conceal them. Don Diego enquired why ſhe was ſo much affected, with ſuch an earneſtneſs of ſympathy and friendſhip, that Leucadea, at laſt, with downcaſt eyes, and ſobbing, related what had happened in his houſe; ſhewed him the crucifix, which don Diego knew; and concluded by throwing herſelf at his feet: 'Your ſon has diſhonoured me,' ſaid ſhe, 'and I embrace your knees. Your ſon has devoted me to infamy and wretchedneſs, and I cannot forbear to love you as the moſt affectionate of fathers.'

The little Carlo, who beheld Leucadea weeping, fell upon his knees likewiſe, extending his arms to don Diego, entreated him not to afflict his *good couſin*; for by that name he called his mother.

Don Diego could not be unmoved at this affecting ſcene. He raiſes Leucadea and her ſon, embraces them, and ſwears that Rodolpho ſhall never have any other wife than Leucadea.

That very day, he wrote to Rodolpho, requiring his immediate return to Toledo, where he had found a ſuitable match for him. Rodolpho left Naples, and arrived at his father's houſe.

houſe. It had been previouſly agreed, that Leucadea and her parents ſhould not be preſent at his arrival.

After the firſt moments devoted to the pleaſure of this interview, don Diego introduced the ſubject of the match, which, he ſaid, he had provided for him. He expatiated on the riches of his intended bride, and concluded by preſenting to him a frightful portrait which he had cauſed to be painted on purpoſe. Rodolpho ſtarted back with horror, and expoſtulated with his father on the impoſſibility of marrying ſuch a woman. Don Diego, with a ſevere tone, replied, that, in marriage, fortune was the only object of conſideration. Rodolpho, on the other hand, inveighed, with great eloquence, againſt this principle; repreſenting all the miſeries of which it had been the cauſe, and adding, that his only wiſh had ever been to find a virtuous and amiable wife, on whom he could confer a fortune, and with whom he could enjoy that felicity which riches alone could never give.

Don Diego, concealing his joy, affected to combat his ſon's opinion, when a ſervant entered to inform him, that don Carlo and his family were come to ſup with him.

Never did Leucadea appear ſo beautiful: it ſeemed as if, by divine permiſſion, her charms were that evening to appear in all their luſtre. She dazzled the eyes of Rodolpho, who eagerly enquired who was this charming woman. His father, pretending not to hear him, haſtened to the two ladies, and perceived, with grief, that the face of Leucadea was covered with a deadly paleneſs, that her hands trembled in his, and that at the ſight of Rodolpho ſhe was fainting. In ſpite of her efforts, her fortitude forſook her, and the tender Leucadea ſunk ſenſeleſs on the floor. Rodolpho ran to her aſſiſtance with an ardour and an anxiety with which his father was inexpreſſibly delighted.

At length, Leucadea came to herſelf, and they all ſat down to ſupper. During this repaſt, Rodolpho could not forbear a moment to contemplate the face of the beautiful ſtranger. She perceived it; but her eyes could not meet his. She ſpoke but little; but whatever ſhe ſaid had a grace, a faſcinating charm, with a certain expreſſion of melancholy that added to the pleaſure with which Rodolpho heard every word. The little Carlo, placed near his father, never ceaſed to notice him, as if by an involuntary impulſe. He ſpoke to him; he careſſed him; and attracting his attention and tenderneſs, Rodolpho, delighted with him, ſaid, that the father of ſuch a child might think himſelf happy.

On riſing from the table, Rodolpho, ſmitten with the charms of Leucadea, took his father aſide, and ſaid to him, in a reſpectful but reſolute tone, that no conſideration whatever could compel him to marry the perſon whom that horrid portrait repreſented. 'It muſt be ſo, however,' anſwered the father, 'unleſs you can prefer that young lady with whom you have juſt ſupped.'—'That young lady!' exclaimed Rodolpho, 'I ſhould be the happieſt of men if ſhe will condeſcend to accept my hand!'—'And I,' returned don Diego, 'ſhall be the happieſt of fathers, if my ſon, by this alliance, expiate the crime with which he has ſullied his illuſtrious name.'

He then related to Rodolpho what he knew; and drawing from his boſom the crucifix of gold, 'Behold, my ſon,' ſaid he, 'behold the witneſs and the judge of the horrid crime you have committed: behold him who will never pardon you, till Leucadea has firſt granted forgiveneſs.'

Rodolpho bluſhed at this recital, and flew to throw himſelf at the feet of Leucadea: 'I have deſerved,' ſaid he, 'your hatred and contempt; but if the moſt reſpectful love, if the moſt ſincere penitence, are worthy of ſome favour, do not refuſe my pardon.

One

One word from your mouth will render me, for ever, the vileſt and moſt wretched of men, or the happieſt and moſt affectionate of huſbands.'

Leucadea, her eyes ſuffuſed with tears, beheld him for a moment in ſilence: then turning to little Carlo, ſhe took him in her arms, and preſented him to his father: 'This,' ſaid ſhe, with a faultering voice, 'this is my anſwer: may this child be the ſource of as much felicity to you as he has been of miſery to his mother.'

A prieſt was inſtantly ſent for, with an alcayd and two witneſſes; and the wedding took place the ſame evening. The beautiful Leucadea was rewarded for her filial piety; and Rodolpho, who had been long reformed, had the farther ſatisfaction of finding, that there is no felicity to be compared to that of virtuous love.

ON THE DIFFERENT CLASSES OF WITS.

'A WIT'S A FEATHER.' POPE.

SINCE the diſuſe of that laborious ſtudy, which engaged the whole time of the ſcholars of the laſt century, and left them at leiſure for the pleaſures of ſociety, what are called converſation-talents have come into repute. To be accounted a wit, is now the higheſt point of ambition, and in our modern obituaries, we find the panegyriſt dwelling, at great length, with a mournful retroſpect, on the lively converſation and great vivacity of the deceaſed. Unqueſtionably, in an age when men devote a very conſiderable proportion, perhaps a fifth, or a fourth part of their time to ſocial converſation, the character of a wit muſt be very important and very deſireable.

Wits may be divided into ſeveral claſſes. We have the firſt and moſt eſtimable, *real wits*; then a ſecond claſs, who may be ſubdivided into the *ſayers of good things*, and the *tellers of good ſtories*. A third claſs there is, which we may call *practical wits*, all their ſkill lying in the *doing* of ſome clever trick.

Of theſe claſſes, the real wits are the moſt ſcarce and conſequently the moſt valuable. The *ſayers of good things* are the moſt common, but it is impoſſible to add, the moſt uſeful. They are perpetually endeavouring to ſay ſomething ſmart and clever, upon every incident and occurrence that happen, and a fixed rule with them, ſeems to be, to diſregard any circumſtance which may interfere with, or prevent the utterance of the clever thing they are about to bring forth. From ſuch wits, you can get no other definition of wit, than that it is whatever they are pleaſed to call ſo. They have, indeed, one merit, which we muſt allow them before we proceed any farther; they are ſo *ſeriouſly* intent on being witty, that they ſeldom ſcruple to ſacrifice their friend to their jeſt, and even to be facetious upon things ſacred, rather than not be facetious at all. Some of the dramatic writers of the early part of the preſent century were, I am perſuaded, licentious, becauſe they would not ſuppreſs a riſing jeſt, be the object of it ever ſo improper. Sayers of good things almoſt never have the gift of retention. What they conceive, they bring forth, and are perfectly indifferent as to what may become of it afterward.

Some of theſe ſayers of good things are punſters; punning is a ſpecies of wit, which has been very much decried; more ſo, I apprehend, than it deſerves. At the ſame time it muſt be allowed to be the loweſt ſpecies of wit, becauſe the eaſieſt to command. It is but playing upon words of a ſimilar ſound, though of different meaning, and I have ſometimes thought that ſchool-maſters intended punning for a branch of education, as in moſt of their ſpelling-books, there is a long liſt of words of

different meanings, which are pronounced alike. A profeſſed punſter is one who is always on the watch for ſome of thoſe words, and can ſeldom miſs his aim, conſidering the careleſs eaſe of common converſation. A punſter will never loſe his pun, be the ſubject what it may. A pun is a favourite child, and muſt upon no account be abandoned. We are to obſerve, however, that much, very much of what is called punning, is nothing but an attempt at it. A punſter will make fifty attempts in the courſe of an evening, and not more than two or three can be reckoned palpable hits; but on the ſtrength of theſe he eſtabliſhes his reputation, as a man who brings home a brace of birds, calls himſelf a ſportſman, without telling you that he fired fifty unſucceſsful ſhots, before he hit theſe. Punſters are often deemed impertinent, becauſe they interrupt converſation, and turn what is ſerious into a jeſt, but they are, on the other hand, ſaid to be very good-natured fellows, whoſe only wiſh is to pleaſe their company. Yet unleſs the company depute one man to entertain the whole, I know no right he has to erect a ſtage in a private room, and play the fool, while the ſpectators gape, ſtare or laugh at him. It muſt not be forgot that our modern comedies and farces abound in the pun, a very direct and poſitive proof of a moſt lamentable decay of true wit. The pun is certainly ſufferable, but only to give a fillip to familiar converſation.

The *tellers of good ſtories*, are a ſpecies of wits at ſecond-hand. They are not wits, but rather *amateurs*, and having no ſtock of their own, they go to market with that of others. All we can, therefore, expect of them is that they ſhow a good judgment in the ſelection of their commodities, and that they bring no more into the market that its conſumption requires. If we find them anſwering this deſcription, we find them uſeful, but we are very apt to doubt the ſkill of men who deal in articles, of the manufacturing of which they have no knowledge; and it often happens with this kind of wits, that they diſgrace the manufacturers by exhibiting his goods in a wrong light, or by attempting to improve upon them, without any acquaintance with the materials. I know a wit of this kind who has a collection of *old* goods, which have laſted him through a pretty long life. He has long ago torn off the private marks of the original manufacturers, and vends them as the genuine productions of whatever popular wit has poſſeſſion of the town.

The errors into which this ſpecies of wits are moſt apt to fall are, giving too many ſtories at one time, by which they ſoon exhauſt their ſtock, and demands are made upon them which they are not able to anſwer, unleſs by furbiſhing up ſome of their old wares, which they never can diſguiſe ſo adroitly as to make them paſs for new. A ſecond error is their dragging in a ſtory, 'neck and heels,' that has no ſort of connexion with the reigning ſubject. An example of this I once heard in a company, where the converſation turned upon a married couple, who did not live upon the beſt terms. A perſon in company repeated the old ſaying, that 'the grey mare was the better horſe.' The wit immediately chimed in with a moſt excellent ſtory about a *mare*. It would be well if theſe wits would at leaſt conſider whether the ſtory they are about to produce, had *any* connexion with the ſubject of converſation, and then, if they could ſpare another minute for conſideration, whether it had any *immediate* connexion, and laſt of all, which is the moſt important conſideration, whether it be proper to introduce it at all, whatever its apparent connexion may be. A third error they fall into, (perhaps they may reckon it a ſpecies of cunning) is to connect together a parcel of ſtories in ſuch a manner that the whole muſt be told, before the company

pany can poſſible interfere. This is ſometimes done with tolerable ſkill, but at other times, nothing can be more clumſy than the mode in which it is performed, the beſt ſtory being always placed firſt, whereas they ought to riſe to a climax.

A third claſs of wits, are thoſe whom I have termed *practical wits*, and whoſe ſkill lies in the doing ſome clever trick. How or when this kind of wits came into vogue, I know not. Very probably they were originally employed in pantomime entertainments, where the kicks, thumps, and falls of the clown, excite ſuch prodigious merriment among the ſpectators. Such is the love of miſchief, when practiſed upon others, that I do not much wonder at the ſucceſs of practical jokers, but their jokes are certainly not very palatable with the parties concerned. Pulling a chair from behind a perſon who is about to ſit down, is a great ſtroke of humour; and formerly driving a blind horſe into a china-ſhop, was an immenſe good thing. But ſomehow, the world at preſent are not ſo capable of theſe exquiſite reliſhes as they were, and this kind of wit is now chiefly confined to the lower claſſes of company. Many examples of it may be ſeen under the great dome in the bank, when the jobbers have but little to do, except to pull one another's wigs, and toſs a hat acroſs the room; and at Bartholomew fair, the reader may obſerve, that it is regularly practiſed at the different booths by Harlequin, the Clown, Punch, his wife, and ſundry other very entertaining perſonages. This ſpecies of wits, differs from all others in one reſpect; they are in ſome meaſure connected with *thought*; whereas the practical jokers have not the moſt diſtant idea of thought, memory, or underſtanding. I know not whether, in another reſpect, it does not poſſeſs a merit, which all the other ſpecies of wit want; it is always perfectly *intelligible*; you may be exceedingly witty at the expence of a man in company, and may *take him off* before his face, without his knowing it, but you cannot take off his wig, or make him fall on the floor, without his comprehending at once what you would be at.

After making theſe few remarks on the ſeveral kinds of wits, we ought to add, that there are ſome things in which they are all, at one time or other, rather deficient. Theſe may be comprehended in one defect, namely, want of judgment,

'There are whom heaven has bleſt with ſtore of wit,
Yet want as much again to manage it.'

Hic labor, hoc opus. The time when, the place where, and the perſon to whom, are all very ſerious circumſtances, which, it were to be wiſhed, oftener entered into the conſideration of wits. For upon all theſe depends what they are moſt alive to, the *effect* their wit muſt produce. Jeſts which *miſs fire*, are the moſt awkward of all things, the piece in that caſe recoils with a force upon the *wit*, which occaſions unſpeakable uneaſineſs to him. In conſidering the time when, it muſt occur to every wit, that all times are not alike; and he will be no leſs ſenſible that a conſideration of *place* is very important. A thing may be a very good jeſt in a tavern, which would not be underſtood upon 'Change; and I have known the effect of a good thing quite annihilated in paſſing from the city to the weſt end of the town. As to *perſons*, it is yet moſt important of all to be cautious. The moſt brilliant *bon mot* that ever 'ſet the table on a roar,' when that table was ſurrounded by young bloods, would have but an awkward report before a bench of juſtices, and I have obſerved that the ſame man will have a very different reliſh for *good things*, according to certain circumſtances, to which a wit ought ever to attend. I never knew wits ſucceed much at the breakfaſt table, but with the ſame party they have been wonderfully ſucceſsful over the bottle. Indeed, there ſeems a

great connexion between wit and drinking; hence, I preſume it is, that we ſo often ſay that ſome mens' wit is *dry*.

The united conſideration of time, place, and perſon, is of great importance. A tradeſman aſſorting his goods is not diſpoſed to be pleaſed with a play of words. A broker, transferring ſtock, never thinks of ſtealing jokes, and a counſellor pleading upon a caſe of life and death ſhould not miſtake the Old Bailey for the court of Momus. We have heard of witty *preachers*. What part of their commiſſion relates to the effuſion of wit, is as yet a ſecret. In the laſt century, they *punned* in the pulpit, and yet I believe they were ſerious. It was a punning age, but we do not reckon laughter as among the means to be uſed for the propagation of the goſpel. There are other ſituations where wit ſeems to be out of place, but I forbear to give more inſtances.

Many definitions have been given of wit, no doubt, with a view to enable us to diſtinguiſh true wit from falſe. I am afraid they have not been ſucceſsful, but the attempt is laudable. The popular definition, that which prevails among the wits mentioned in this paper, may be expreſſed in theſe words; 'Wit is any thing which excites laughter.' That this is the prevailing definition, we may be certain, if we obſerve that all the errors into which wits of all deſcriptions fall, may be traced to it. Now, to excite laughter, is one of the moſt eaſy taſks a man can preſcribe to himſelf. He will always find enough who are

—'Pleaſed with a feather, tickled with a ſtraw.'

and hence ſo many reputed wits and ſo few real ones. To produce laughter is all the object, and the end would be harmleſs if the means were ſo. But to produce laughter is reckoned ſo certain a proof of wit, and is ſo high a point of ambition, that wits will ſtick at nothing to gain their purpoſe, and hence all the indecent, impious, and unfeeling jeſts, which abound ſo much in the companies of men of looſe minds, and too frequently in publications profeſſedly calculated to amend the morals. Laughter is in itſelf harmleſs, but it is not the principal purpoſe of our meeting together, and the wit which produces it is ſeldom acceptable, unleſs it has been preceded by ſomething of argument, which it may confirm. He who laughs at every thing, has learned nothing, and he who thinks he has a privilege to exerciſe his wit upon every ſubject, ought firſt to prove that he can exerciſe his judgment.

T. C. A.

ANECDOTES OF EMINENT CHARACTERS.

Dr. William Cullen.

THERE is nothing more ſingular in the hiſtory of celebrated men, than the apparently trifling circumſtances, to which they are indebted for an opportunity to emerge from obſcurity, and bring forward their talents to the eyes and admiration of mankind. Dr. Cullen was long an obſcure medical practitioner in a country village in Scotland, where he could neither acquire fame nor riches, but it happened that, while he reſided here, Archibald, duke of Argyle, viſited a gentleman in the neighbourhood. The duke dabbled in chemiſtry, and indeed had a more than ordinary knowledge of the ſubject, but while on this viſit, was much at a loſs for want of a ſmall chemical apparatus. His hoſt, recollecting Mr. Cullen, invited him to dine, and introduced him to the duke as a perſon likely to ſupply his wants. An introduction to one of his grace's great political ſway could not but be favourable. A ſucceſsful cure he afterward performed on the duke of Hamilton, completed his character. His

firſt

firſt ſtep in 1746, was to the chemical chair in the univerſity of Glaſgow. His future ſucceſs and fame are well known.

It has been ſaid, that no profeſſion affords ſo many opportunities of diſplaying the virtues of benevolence as the medical. Of theſe opportunities, no man, perhaps, ever availed himſelf oftener, or with a better grace. He never took fees of the clergy, who, truth to ſay, in Scotland, can ill afford the pecuniary penalties of diſeaſe; nor of the ſtudents. Dr. Anderſon of Edinburgh, give us a pleaſant anecdote of the advantage once derived from Dr. Cullen's charitable diſpoſition. A medical ſtudent, who attended a courſe of lectures given by one of the medical profeſſors, but who never had attended Cullen's claſs, happened to be ſeized with the ſmallpox; at the beginning of the diſorder, he was ſick and very uneaſy, and naturally ſent for his own profeſſor as a phyſician; in a ſhort time the diſeaſe terminated favourably, and all danger had abated, when the young man ſurpriſed his friends by calling in the aſſiſtance of Dr. Cullen, for which he ſaid he had reaſons which they would approve of, when they knew them. By and bye he became quite well, and as there could be no decent pretext for future viſits, he watched his opportunity when both the phyſicians were preſent, thanked Dr. Cullen for his attention, and offered him money. This the doctor, as the young wag foreſaw, poſitively refuſed. He then offered it to the other, his own profeſſor, who for ſhame could not accept it, although it was never known that he had refuſed a fee when offered. The reaſon of his calling in Dr. Cullen was now very apparent.

Sir Robert Walpole.

It is well known, that ſir Robert Walpole, like every other miniſter who enjoys for a long time the favour of his ſovereign, had many enemies. In that number, the celebrated William Shippen, highly famed in the annals of that period, was among the moſt conſpicuous. Shippen, who ſecretly favoured the cauſe of the abdicated family, carried on a private treaſonable correſpondence with ſome of the favourers of that cauſe. Walpole, who was not ignorant of this circumſtance, contrived matters ſo as to get into his hand a whole bundle of Shippen's treaſonable letters; when he had obtained them, he ſent for Mr. Shippen one morning. The *patriot*, ſomewhat ſurpriſed, but not in the leaſt ſuſpecting the true cauſe of the meſſage, obeyed the ſummons. He was politely received by the miniſter, who, after the uſual compliments, put the letters in his hands, aſking, at the ſame time, if he knew that handwriting. Poor Shippen, as ſoon as he caſt his eyes upon them, was confounded and abaſhed. He wiſhed to make ſome kind of apology, but could only ſtammer out ſome incoherent words. Sir Robert then, ſmiling, took him by the hand: 'Be not afraid, ſaid he, Mr. Shippen; I ſee well enough how matters ſtand. I only wanted to convince you that *I* am not the very wicked creature you wiſh to perſuade the world I am. Set your mind at eaſe. Theſe papers I obtained merely for my own private information. I am ſatisfied; and be aſſured that no one elſe ſhall ever be the wiſer for them.'—So ſaying, he took them from the trembling culprit, and threw them into the fire, where they were quickly reduced to aſhes. 'It is my duty,' ſaid he, 'to ſerve my maſter with fidelity, and to protect him from all dangers that may chance to threaten him. But it is neither my inclination nor my duty, to puniſh with undue ſeverity, thoſe who, through miſtaken principles, may have been led into error. I ſhould even doubt how far I acted with ſtrict impartiality, were I to deliver up to puniſhment the man who perſonally oppoſed me as you have done; and the world would have ſtill more reaſon to doubt of it than myſelf.

ſelf. Go home in perfect ſecurity, and be aſſured that, on all proper occaſions, I will promote your intereſt juſt as much as if no ſuch thing had happened.'

The patriot returned with ſentiments very different from thoſe he entertained when he came. Some time afterward, Shippen obtained a lucrative office, which he could not exerciſe without taking the oaths of allegiance. Sir Robert, who knew of this, took care to be preſent when the oath was adminiſtered; and placing himſelf juſt oppoſite, ſtared Shippen full in the face, and burſt into a fit of laughter, when the patriot abjured the family of the Pretender. No one preſent underſtood the full meaning of this but themſelves. When all was over, Shippen came up to him, 'By G—d, ſaid he, ſir Robert, this is too much; you had almoſt made theſe curſed oaths ſtick in my throat, and choak me. This was indeed too much.'

Marshal Keith.

When the Ruſſians and Turks in the war before laſt, thought proper to treat of a peace, marſhal Keith and the Turkiſh grand viſier were appointed commiſſioners. Theſe two perſonages met, and the interpreters of the Ruſſian and Turkiſh languages between them. When all was concluded, they aroſe to ſeparate; the marſhal made his bow with hat in hand, and the viſier his *ſalam*, with the turban on his head; but when theſe ceremonies were over, the viſier turned ſuddenly, and coming up to Keith, took him freely by the hand, and in the broadeſt Scotch dialect, ſuch as is ſpoken by the loweſt and moſt illiterate of that nation, declared warmly, that it made him *unco* happy, now he was *ſae* far *frae hame*, to meet a countryman in his exalted ſtation. Keith ſtared with all his eyes; and expreſſed his ſurpriſe; the viſier told him, 'My father was bellman of Kirkaldy, in Fifeſhire, and I remember to have ſeen you, ſir, and your brother often occaſionally paſſing.'

Ninon de L'Enclos.

The following ſtory of this celebrated female is tranſlated from the French, in which language it was long an object of belief. In the year 1633, as ſhe one day ſat alone in her chamber, her ſervant announced the arrival of a ſtranger, who deſired to ſpeak with her, but refuſed to tell his name. The young lady bade anſwer, that ſhe was engaged with company. 'No, no,' ſaid the ſtranger to the lacquey, 'I know well that miſs is by herſelf, and for that very reaſon I call upon her at preſent. Go, tell her I have ſecrets of the laſt moment to impart, and cannot take a refuſal.'—This extraordinary meſſage, by exciting female curioſity, procured the ſtranger admittance. He was of low ſtature, of an ungracious aſpect, and his grey hairs beſpoke age. He was dreſſed in black, without a ſword, wore a *cqlotte*, (a ſmall leathern cape which covers the tonſure) and a large patch on his forehead: in his left hand he held a very ſlender cane; his features were expreſſive, and his eyes ſparkled vivacity.—'Madam,' ſaid he, on entering the apartment, 'pleaſe to make your waiting maid retire; my words are not for third perſons.'—Miſs L'Enclos was a good deal ſtartled at this preamble; but reflecting ſhe had to do with a decrepit old man, muſtered up ſome reſolution, and diſmiſſed her maid. 'Let not my viſit alarm you, madam; it is true I do not humour all indiſcriminately with my preſence, but be aſſured you have nothing to fear. All I beg is, that you would hear me with confidence and attention. You ſee before you a man whom the earth obeys, and whom nature has inveſted with the power of diſpenſing her gifts. I preſided at your birth; the lot of mortals depends upon my nod; and I have condeſcended to aſk what lot you would wiſh for yourſelf; the preſent is but the dawn of your brilliant days. Soon

ſhall

ſhall you arrive at that period, when the gates of the world ſhall fly open to receive you; for it depends wholly upon yourſelf to be the moſt illuſtrious and moſt proſperous lady of your age. I ſubmit to your choice, ſupreme honours, immenſe riches, and eternal beauty. Take which you chuſe, and depend upon it, there exiſts not a mortal who can make you the ſame ample offer.' 'That I verily believe,' replied the fair one, in a fit of laughter; 'beſides, your gifts are ſo very ſplendid!'—'I hope, madam, you have too much good ſenſe to make ſport of a ſtranger: once more, I ſeriouſly make you the ſame offer; but decide inſtantly.' 'Then, truly, ſir, ſince you are ſo good as to give me my choice, I hesitate not to fix upon eternal beauty; but how, pray, am I to obtain ſuch an ineſtimable prize?' —'Madam, all I aſk is, that you would put down your name in my tablets, and ſwear inviolable ſecrecy.' Mademoiſelle de l'Enclos inſtantly complied, and wrote her name upon a black memorandum book with red edging. The old man, at the ſame time, ſtruck her gently upon the left ſhoulder with his wand. 'This now,' reſumed he, 'is the whole ceremony; henceforth rely upon eternal beauty, and the ſubjugation of every heart. I beſtow on you unlimitted powers of charming, the moſt precious privilege a tenant of this lower world can enjoy. During the 6000 years that I have perambulated this globe, I have found only four who were worthy of ſuch rare felicity. They were Semiramis, Helen, Cleopatra, and Diana of Poictiers; you are the fifth, and I am determined ſhall be the laſt. You ſhall be ever freſh and blooming; charms and adorations ſhall follow your ſteps; whoever beholds you ſhall that inſtant be captivated, and they whom you love ſhall reciprocally love you; you ſhall enjoy uninterrupted health and longevity without appearing old. Some females ſeem born to bewitch the eye, and ſome the heart; but you alone are fated to unite theſe different qualities; you ſhall taſte of pleaſure at an age, when others of your ſex are beſet with decrepitude; your name ſhall live while the world endures. I am aware, madam, that all this will appear to you like enchantment, but aſk me no queſtions, for I dare not anſwer a word. In the courſe of your life you ſhall ſee me once again, and that ere fourſcore years be run. Tremble then! for three ſhort days ſhall cloſe your exiſtence? Remember, my name is *Night Walker*.' With theſe words he vaniſhed, and left the lady of eternal beauty trembling with fear.

This lady, adds the ſtory, had a ſecond viſit from the gentleman in black in the year 1706, as ſhe lingered on her death-bed. In ſpite of the efforts of ſervants, he had found his way into her apartment; he ſtood by her bed, opened the curtains, and gazed—the patient turned pale, and ſhrieked aloud. The unwelcome gueſt, after reminding her that the third day would be that of her diſſolution, exhibited her own ſignature, and diſappeared, as he exclaimed with a hideous voice, 'Tremble! for it is paſt, and you are to fall into the hands of Lucifer.' The third day came, and L'Enclos was no more.

Duchess of Lenox, &c.

That excellent and indefatigable writer, the late lord Hailes, in a tract of his, now very ſcarce, gives us three ſpecimens of letter writing of the laſt century, which are curious. The firſt is from the ducheſs dowager of Lenox to king James the firſt.

'My ſovereign Lord,

'According to your majeſty's gracious pleaſure ſignified unto me, I have ſent a young man to attend you, accompanied with a widows prayers and tears, that he may wax old in your majeſty's ſervice; and in his fidelity and affection may equal his anceſtors departed: ſo ſhall he find grace and favour in the eyes of my lord the king; which will revive the dying

dying hopes, and raiſe the dejected ſpirits, of a comfortleſs mother. Your majeſty's moſt humble ſervant,

KA. LENOX.

As a contraſt to the elegant ſimplicity of this, we have the following from the wife of the famous duke of Buckingham, to the ſame ſovereign.

'May it pleaſe your Majeſtie,

'I have *receved* the two boxes of *drid ploms* and *graps*, and the box of *violatt cakes*, and chickens, for all which I moſt humbly thank your majeſtie.

'I hope my lord Aunan has *tould* your majeſtie that I did mean to *wene* Mall very ſhortly. I *wood* not by any *mens a-don* it, till I had *furſt* made your majeſtie acquainted with it; and by reaſon my couſin Bret's boy has *binne* ill of *latt*, for *fere ſhee* ſhould *greeve* and *ſpyle* her milk, *maks* me very deſirous to *wene* her. And I think ſhee is *ould enufe*, and I hope will endure her *wening* very well; for I think there was never child *card* leſs for the breaſt than ſhee *dos*; ſo I do intend to make trial this night how ſhe will endure it. This day praying for your majeſtie's health and *longe* life, I humbly take my leave. Your majeſtie's moſt humble ſervant,

K. BUCKINGHAM.'

The following is from the duke to king James.

'Dear Dad and Goſſip,

'Yeſterday we got hither ſo early, that I had time to ſee over a good part of my works here. This afternoon I will ſee the reſt. I proteſt to God the chiefeſt pleaſure I have in them, is, that I hope they will pleaſe you, and that they have all come by and from you. I am now going to give my redeemer thanks for my *maker*. The afternoon I will ſpend in viewing the reſt. To-morrow the —— threaten to be early up, being of my mind impatient to be with you. We ſhall have need of a coach of yours, or *Babie Charles*, to make the way ſhort. I could write to the equerries to ſend them to Thurlo, ſeven miles on this ſide Newmarket; but I will be beholden to none but my kind maſter and purveyor, who never failed me when I had need; therefore beſtir thee, and *(ſuch words illegible)* duty. I will give no thanks for nothing, till I may do it on my knees; ſo I crave your bleſſing, as your majeſtie's moſt humble ſlave and dog.

STINIE.'

Such a flatterer deſerved ſuch a king. They were well paired.

JEFFERY HUDSON.

THIS famous dwarf was born at Oakham, in Rutlandſhire, in 1619. He was in the family of the duke of Buckingham at ſeven years of age, at which time his ſtature did not exceed eighteen inches; and to divert the court, which that nobleman entertained at Burleigh, he was ſerved up to table in a cold pie. He was afterward preſented to Henrietta Maria, queen conſort to Charles I, and was often employed by her on meſſages abroad. His ſize never exceeded three feet nine inches. His courage, however, far exceeded the dimenſions of his body: for upon the breaking out of the rebellion, he became a captain of horſe. When the queen was forced out of England, he attended her to France; from whence he was baniſhed for killing Mr. Crofts, brother to the lord of that name; and going to ſea, he was taken by a Turkiſh corſair, and ſold for a ſlave, in which ſtate he remained many years. Being afterward redeemed, he returned to England, and in the time of Oates' plot, was taken up, and committed priſoner to the gatehouſe for a conſiderable time. He died in the year 1678.

In Newgate-ſtreet, ſays Mr. Pennant, over the entrance into Bagnio-court, is a ſmall ſculpture in ſtone of William Evans, gigantic porter to Charles the firſt, and his diminutive fellow-ſervant, Jeffery Hudſon, dwarf to the ſame monarch. It was probably by his own conſent that the latter

was put into the pocket of the giant, and drawn out by him at a maſque at court, to amaze and divert the ſpectators. He had too much ſpirit to ſuffer ſuch an inſult, from even a Goliath! for little Jeffery afterward commanded, with much reputation, a troop of horſe in his majeſty's ſervice; and in 1644, killed Mr. Crofts in a duel; who had ventured to ridicule the irritable hero. Evans was ſeven feet and a half high.

An Account of a COMPOSITION *for preſerving* WEATHER BOARDING.

[From 'Tranſactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts,' &c. Vol. XII.]

THE receipt for this compoſition was communicated to the ſecretary of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. by William Pattenſon, eſq. of Ibornden, in Kent. 'I have often thought ſomething much wanted, ſays Mr. Pattenſon, for preſerving weather-boarding, &c. from the injuries of the weather. Tar and oker, and other mixtures recommended for the purpoſe, I have tried, but do not find they anſwer: I therefore have made many experiments, to diſcover a compoſition better adapted to the purpoſe, and think I have found one which anſwers my expectation. It is impenetrable to water, is not injured by the action of the weather, or heat of the ſun, which hardens it, and conſequently increaſes its durability: it is much cheaper than paint, and more laſting.'

THE RECEIPT.

Three parts air-ſlacked lime, two of wood-aſhes, and one of fine ſand, or ſea-coal aſhes; ſift theſe through a fine ſieve, and add as much linſeed oil as will bring it to a conſiſtence for working with a painter's bruſh; great care muſt be taken to mix it perfectly. I believe grinding it as paint would be an improvement: two coats are neceſſary; the firſt rather thin, the ſecond as thick as can conveniently be worked. I am not certain as to the length of time the ſamples I ſent you were expoſed to the weather, but ſuppoſe ſeven or eight months; it was expoſed immediately on its being applied to the wood; and from the nature of its compoſition, there is no doubt but it is very durable; as it certainly will improve in hardneſs by time, and is much ſuperior for the purpoſe to any thing I know of.

The thanks of the ſociety were voted to Mr. Pattenſon.

Important Communications reſpecting the DRY ROT *in* TIMBER.

[From the SAME.]

'THE following obſervations on the Dry Rot were communicated to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. by Robert Batſon, eſq. of Limehouſe, in the following Letter to the ſecretary:

'Sir,

'The ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, continuing to offer a premium for diſcovering the cauſe of the dry-rot in timber, and diſcloſing a certain method of prevention; I beg leave to lay before them an account of a method I have put in practice, and which at preſent appears to me to have fully ſucceeded.

The dry-rot having taken place in one of my parlours in ſuch manner as to require the pulling down part of the wainſcot every third year, and perceiving that it aroſe from a damp ſtagnated air, and from the moiſture

of the earth, I determined, in the month of June 1783, to build a narrow cloſet next the wall through which the damp came to the parlour; which had the deſired effect: but, though it put a total ſtop to the rot in the parlour, the evil ſoon appeared in the cloſet; fungi of a yellow colour aroſe to a great degree, in various parts of it. In the autumn of the year 1786, the cloſet was locked up about ten weeks: on opening it, numerous fungi were obſerved about the lower part of it, and a white mould was ſpread by a plant reſembling a vine or ſea-weed, and the whole of the inſide, china, &c. was covered with a fine powder of the colour of brick-duſt. It being then cleaned out, I ſoon perceived, what, indeed, I did not expect, that the evil had impregnated the wood ſo far as to run through every ſhelf therein, and the brackets that ſupported them; it had alſo ſeized upon and deſtroyed a movable board for breaking ſugar on. I therefore, in the beginning of the year 1787, determined to ſtrip the whole cloſet of lining and floor, and not leave a particle of the wood behind, and alſo to dig and take away about two feet of the earth in depth, and leave the walls to dry, ſo as to deſtroy the roots or ſeeds of the evil. When by time and the admiſſion of air, and good bruſhing, it had become ſufficiently dry and cleanſed, I filled it, of ſufficient height for my joiſts, with anchor-ſmiths aſhes; knowing that no vegetable would grow in them. My joiſts being ſawed off to their proper lengths, and fully prepared, they and the plates were well charred, and laid upon the aſhes; particular directions being given that not any ſcantling or board might be cut or planed in the place, leſt any duſt or ſhavings might drop among the aſhes. My flooring boards being very dry, I cauſed them to be laid cloſe, to prevent the dirt getting down, which, I thought, in a courſe of time might bring on vegetation.

The framing for lining the cloſet was then fixed up, having all the lower pannels let in to be faſtened with buttons only, that, in caſe any vegetation ſhould ariſe, the pannels might with eaſe be taken out to examine them.

This having now been done upward of ſix years, and no vegetation or damp appearing, the whole of the pannels and floor remaining in the ſame ſtate as when firſt put in, I ſhall have a ſatisfaction in taking a part of the floor up, if the ſociety think proper to appoint a committee to examine the place.

If what I have produced meets the approbation of the ſociety, I wiſh it made public under their ſanction, that as full a trial as poſſible may be made of it; and if at a proper diſtance of time it proves of general utility, any honorary token of the ſociety's approbation will be received with much ſatisfaction by me.

I think it may be highly neceſſary, in ſome ſituations, to take out a greater depth of earth; and where aſhes can be had from a foundery, they are fully equal to thoſe from anchor-ſmiths; but by no means depend upon houſe-aſhes.

I am, &c.

Limehouſe, Dec. 7, 1793. ROBERT BATSON.

In conſequence of the foregoing letter, a committee was appointed to examine and report the ſtate of the cloſet, who having met on the 15th of May 1794, and the wainſcot being taken down, and the flooring boards taken up, they were all found entirely free from any appearance of the rot; and, from all the circumſtances then obſerved, it was the opinion of the committee, that the method adviſed by Mr. Batſon, when fully and completely put in execution, appeared to have anſwered every intention mentioned in his letter; and this opinion ſeemed the more juſtly founded, as two pieces of wood, (yellow fir) which had been driven into the wall as plugs, without being previouſly charred, were affected with the rot.

The

The ſociety ordered their thanks to be given to Mr. Batſon, and requeſted any perſons that might think proper to repeat his experiments, to favour the ſociety with ſome account of the reſult. They have obſerved, moreover, that quick lime has been ſaid to anſwer very well, when uſed inſtead of the anchor-ſmiths aſhes.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* USES *and* ADVANTAGES *of the* CHESTNUT TREE.

[From the SAME.]

THE following judicious obſervations on the uſes and advantages of the Cheſtnut Tree, may tend, we hope, to reſtore the culture, in this kingdom, of that excellent and uſeful tree; the wood of which, it is well known, was in high eſtimation among our forefathers, as is evident from many of the buildings of great magnitude being conſtructed of it, and which, in many of its valuable properties, gives place to the oak only.—They were communicated to the ſecretary of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. by Lewis Majendie, eſq. of Hedingham Caſtle, in the county of Eſſex: to whom the ſociety adjudged the gold medal offered for the culture of the cheſtnut.

'It is commonly ſuppoſed,' ſays Mr. Majendie, 'that the cheſtnut-tree is indigenous, and that formerly large tracts of ground were to be ſeen covered with this tree. It muſt not be expected from me to enter at large upon the diſcuſſion of a queſtion, which, beſide having been the ſubject of abler pens, would exceed the limits of a paper intended to be for the moſt part practical. Thoſe who wiſh for information on this head, will meet with it in ſeveral ingenious papers in the 59th and 61ſt volumes of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, in which much ingenuity is diſplayed on both ſides the queſtion; though, on the whole, the matter remains undecided, and open to future diſcuſſion.

'The uſes of this excellent tree were certainly well known to our anceſtors; this appears from the great quantities of cheſtnut-timber, ſo often found in many ancient buildings in various parts of England: yet this circumſtance, however clearly it may ſhew the eſtimation in which this wood was formerly held, will not amount to a proof of its being indigenous. Evelyn ſays (Silva, vol. i. page 161, edit. York, 1786) "Some will not allow the cheſtnut to be a free-born of this iſland; but of that I have little doubt:" yet his learned and ingenious commentator, Dr. A. Hunter, in a note on this paſſage, judiciouſly obſerves, "I do not take upon me to ſay, whether the cheſtnut be a native of the ſouthern parts of this iſland, or not; but, I am well informed no ſuch tree has ever been diſcovered in any of the natural woods north of Trent." But, admitting for a moment, from the great uſe formerly made in England of the cheſtnut, that it really is indigenous; it will ſtill be moſt difficult to give any ſatisfactory reaſon for the preſent general ſcarcity (I had almoſt ſaid total failure) of this uſeful tree; unleſs we allow a cauſe aſſigned by an author of repute for a ſimilar ſcarcity of this tree in France to have the ſame weight with us.

'As the words of this author are very remarkable, I venture to trouble the ſociety with a tranſlation of them, without any comment whatever on my part.'

"The cheſtnut is a great and lofty tree, growing naturally in the temperate latitudes of weſtern Europe: whatever may be the cauſe, it is leſs common now than formerly; and it is to be lamented that no cheſtnut-trees are now to be found in the foreſts of many provinces, the old buildings of which abound with this

timber. This tree, from its ſize and utility, has deſervedly been ranked in the firſt order of foreſt-trees; and it is generally allowed to give place to the oak alone. It manifeſtly appears from the records of the city of Orleans, that the foreſt of Orleans has been obſerved to change alternately the ſpecies of its timber; to have been for a ſpace of time in oak, then in cheſtnut, and afterward in oak again: in the woods of oak many young cheſtnut-trees are found intermixed, which, being overpowered, make but ſlow progreſs; when the former are felled, the latter enjoying a freer current of air, grow vigorouſly, choak the young ſhoots of the oak, and aſſume their ſituations: the ſame has been remarked in other foreſts."—(See Dictionnaire Univerſel, par M. Valmont Bornaſe, Art. *Chataigner*, 8vo, edit. Lyons, 1791.)

'As the ſcarcity in England of this valuable tree cannot be denied, it ſeems incumbent on the preſent and ſucceeding generations (leaving all controverſy about the ſituations of its natural growth out of the queſtion) to endeavour, by liberal and extenſive culture, fully to poſſeſs a plant of ſuch general uſe; and which is known to flouriſh ſo well in this country.

'In the 61ſt volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, it is obſerved, that Mr. Dale, in his hiſtory of Harwich, mentions various cheſtnut-trees to be growing in Stour Wood, within the pariſh immediately adjoining to Harwich. As my reſidence in the county of Eſſex has afforded me frequent opportunities of inſpecting this wood, I ſhall communicate to the ſociety my obſervations thereon, as well as the information relating to the cheſtnut, which I was at ſeveral times able to collect on the ſpot.

'The Stour Wood, near Harwich, part of the eſtate of Nathaniel Garland, eſq. is of conſiderable magnitude, abounding with cheſtnut; and I obſerved with great ſatisfaction, that its valuable uſes are well known, and held in due eſtimation. It is almoſt entirely treated as underwood; for I remarked few, if any, timber-trees of the cheſtnut, though there are many oaks of large and beautiful growth. The cheſtnut ſtools ſeem of great age, and the poles are uſually felled at eighteen years growth; at which age they are deemed of ſufficient ſize for the uſes to which they are applied.

Theſe are, the following—gates, ſtiles, and hurdles, which from their lightneſs and durability are preferred to thoſe of oak: ſome of the gates are known to have ſtood fifteen, twenty, and with repairs, more than twenty-five years, on the farms of the eſtate. For joiſts in ſmall buildings it is alſo found very durable; but one of the chief uſes to which the cheſtnut is applied in theſe parts, is ſea-walling, or embankments againſt the ſea, for which purpoſe it is cut into piles about five feet long and ten inches thick, which are driven above three feet into the earth. If the ſoil be a coheſive ooze, their duration is ſuch that it is difficult to ſay how many years they will laſt. The effects of time upon them is a gradual wearing, or diminution of the ſubſtance, without rotting the remaining part; which, when removed, however diminiſhed from its original ſize, is found of the greateſt hardneſs to the laſt: the ſame obſervation has alſo been made concerning the duration of hop-poles of this wood. If the ſoil is ſandy, the piles will not laſt ſo long; for this uſe, however, the cheſtnut is greatly preferred to every other wood.

'Beſide the above eſſential uſes, it is employed in a more ſubordinate line, for ladder ſteps, pins for barn floors, and laths, eſpecially thoſe uſed in thatching, in all which it is found equally durable to the hardeſt oak. I am indebted to Mr. Thomas Woodruffe, a perſon of intelligence and candour, a principal tenant upon the eſtate, for the above information.

Amid the numerous advantages attending this tree, none is of greater import, than the early ſtate in which it is convertible to general uſe; for, unlike

unlike the oak, which requires a great length of time before it can be felled with advantage, the cheſtnut, from its rapid growth and ſmall portion of ſap, may be applied to any purpoſe for which it poſſeſſes ſufficient ſize and proportion; and this happy quality leads me to obſerve that, except where this tree is wanted for large ſcantlings in the great ſcale of building, it will anſwer beſt as underwood, by furniſhing a periodical return of freſh wood, ſuperior (in reſpect of this ſpecies) to its timber, as this underwood will generally prove ſounder and leſs ſhaken than that of timber growth; for, with all the merits belonging to this tree, we muſt confeſs that thoſe of large ſize, or great age, are generally obſerved to be greatly ſhaken.

It may alſo be obſerved that, treated as underwood, it is reducible to uſe for out-door work with the leaſt poſſible workmanſhip; for, if it be only large enough for the purpoſe intended, the axe and plane are generally ſufficient to ſhape it; whereas the oak muſt be ſawed, the ſap (ſo inconſiderable in the cheſtnut) muſt be rejected, and the inward part, or heart, alſo ſawed, before it can be truſted to the effects of the weather.

'I now proceed to lay before the ſociety the particulars of a plantation of this tree, formed by me in the courſe of laſt winter.—A field, containing by admeaſurement ten acres three roods and five poles, the ſoil a loam upon a clay, except in ſome few ſpots where the ſubſtratum is a gravel, was fixed on for this purpoſe; the whole was trenched to a depth from fifteen to eighteen inches.

'I have ſo often experienced the great ſuperiority attending this operation, previous to all kinds of planting, as well as the ill effects from its omiſſion, that I have long deemed it indiſpenſible to the future welfare of my plantations. By this proceſs the upper, which is uſually the beſt ſoil, is ſubverted, to the great advantage of the roots; and the under-ſoil brought up to the beneficial influence of the atmoſphere; ſo that the plants, having ample room, vegetate without reſtraint; the young and tender roots eſtabliſh themſelves without difficulty in the looſened earth, and generally acquire, in the very firſt ſtage of their growth, a certain air of general health and vigour very different from thoſe where this uſeful precaution hath been omitted. Upon the land thus prepared, the young cheſtnut trees were planted, at an interval of about four feet, and in the quincunx order: moſt of theſe trees were ſeedlings, and the number planted exceeds twenty-nine thouſand: of theſe, all, except about four thouſand, were raiſed by myſelf from nuts ſown in beds, and the young trees tranſplanted as above deſcribed. The cheſtnut having generally a tap-root, I uſed the ſame caution in planting thoſe as with the oaks, concerning which I communicated an account to the ſociety upon a former occaſion (ſee vol. x, page 3, of theſe Tranſactions) they were brought up entire from the ſeed bed, and let into the earth without ſhortening their roots.

'The ſummer of 1793 proved, as is well known, unuſually dry and ſultry; the trees have however ſuffered hardly at all, and are at preſent in a moſt thriving ſtate. This I attribute in a great meaſure to the due preparation of the ſoil by trenching, together with the great care uſed in planting the trees, in which, beſide the precautions uſual in ſuch caſes, we were careful to remove no more from the ſeminary, than we could eaſily plant in the courſe of the ſame day.

'I am not without ſtrong and well-founded hopes that this plantation will fully anſwer the ends propoſed in forming it; one of the chief of which is the inducing a general good opinion of this neglected tree to the neighbourhood, founded upon the beſt grounds, a practical knowledge of its excellent qualities: this will, I truſt, be followed by its extenſive culture.

'The advantages to be derived from culture, are, by the ſoſtering

care

care of the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, now fairly before the public (ſee Tranſactions, vol. ii, page 13. vol. vi, page 10. vol. viii, page 6. vol. ix, page 17. vol. x, page 27.)

'The aſſertions concerning this tree are not viſionary and ſpeculative, but ſuch as, from confirmed experience, will bear the teſt of the ſtricteſt enquiry.

'I ſhould have obſerved before this, that the cheſtnut delights in loamy, ſandy ſoils, and will ſucceed well in light clay or gravel; I have ſeen it alſo grow vigorouſly in mere ſands; and in general it prefers ſoils of looſe texture. In ſtiff clays, or ſoils generally wet, it makes very indifferent progreſs. This I ſay from experience.

The bark is ſometimes uſed for the purpoſes of tanning; but it is greatly inferior to that of oak, ſelling for only half its price.'

DETACHED THOUGHTS ON DISSOLUTION.

'Nor love thy life, nor hate; but what thou liv'ſt,
'Live well; how long or ſhort, permit to heaven.'

MILTON, P. L. B. xi. v. 553.

IT is certain that all men muſt die, as that no man knows either the time or the manner of his death. The ſoldier goes to battle in hopes to return ſafe, and ſhare the glory of victory. The mariner, after many perils, expects to die at home in his bed, ſurrounded by his family. Neither would be fit for the duties of his office, if he thought otherwiſe. The fear of death is natural to man, or rather, it ought to be natural to him, but men do not act as if impreſſed by this fear. If they were, it may be doubted whether they would act with vigour, expedition and courage.

But the fear of death is unqueſtionably at the bottom of many of our actions. Inſtinct and experience guide all animals to avoid what is hurtful, and *men* avoid what is hurtful, becauſe it tends to ſhorten life.

Improperly, in my opinion, hath Dr. Johnſon ſaid that 'The fear of death is ſo natural to man, that the whole of life is but keeping away the thoughts of it.' It is true, that moſt men ſtrive by all kinds of pleaſures to keep away the thoughts of death, but the means they take are ſo ill fitted to the end, that we cannot account them rational creatures. Never to think of danger is ſurely not the way to prepare ourſelves againſt it. The danger we think much of, we may ſometimes magnify above the reality, but we at the ſame time prepare an extraordinary portion of defence.

The fear of death, as that which muſt terminate life, is abſurd, becauſe we are *certain* it will come. We know, indeed, neither the time nor the manner, and our fear is, leſt it attacks us when we are not prepared.

No man, but a Chriſtian, knows what it is to be prepared for death. The infidel fears death only as an interruption to ſome favourite ſcheme of ambition, honour, wealth, or pleaſure. He is ſhocked at the idea of leaving any deſign incomplete. He is the only man who cannot view death in a proper light.

We cannot account for length or ſhortneſs of life. Temperance is to be practiſed as a duty, and as what preſerves a healthful exiſtence, but temperance is no defence againſt death. We often obſerve the healthieſt and ſtrongeſt men cut off by a few days illneſs, while, on the other hand, it is wonderful what length and ſeverity of diſeaſe the feeble and the valetudinary will ſurvive.

We hear every day of inſtances of longevity, of men living near a century. We cannot account for this, becauſe

becauſe of ſuch men we know but few who have lived otherwiſe than the world around them, and we have known many who have lived in habitual intemperance for forty or fifty years uninterruptedly.

Children, whoſe conſtitutions cannot, and women, whoſe conſtitutions ſeldom are injured by intemperance, are the frequent prey of death. We know not how to ſolve this. We ſee a beautiful body, the model of health and ſtrength, attacked by certain pains and irregularities, which we call diſeaſe, and which cloſe the ſcene of life in its prime. Why theſe things are ſo, God only knows.

The ancients wrote well upon death. It is ſurpriſing, that a conſideration of its uncertainty did not lead them to more correct notions of a Deity. It was not, however, ordained for *their* wiſdom, 'to bring life and immortality to light.'

Independent of all regularity or irregularity of diet, thouſands are precipitated into the grave by accidents. Theſe are heavy afflictions. We are not prepared to bear them. We know ſomething of the ſhortneſs of life, ſomething of its gradual waſte and decay; we know what intemperance and diſeaſe can do, but that a man in perfect health and ſtrength ſhould inſtantly die, enters not into our calculations.

I have often wiſhed that the converſation of ſenſible men, who are condemned to die, were more carefully noted. They only can be ſaid to know the hour and manner of their death. Yet, perhaps, they are not deſerted by hope; and when that friend of happineſs does leave them, the time is too ſhort for reflexion. The unfortunate Louis XVI, appears to have *hoped* to the very moment of his execution. It was only then that he cried in agony, 'Je *ſuis perdu*; *Je ſuis perdu* *!'

It is melancholy to reflect, that men doomed to die within a ſhort and certain ſpace, are ſo tenacious of life, as to grudge that ſhort ſpace for a due preparation. The law will not put to death a lunatic, who has become ſo after the paſſing of ſentence, becauſe he is not in a condition to prepare himſelf, or, becauſe he is already in the hands of God. I have ever admired the piety of our anceſtors in forming ſuch a law.

Children, and very young perſons, bear the thoughts of death with compoſure. Perhaps this is from their innocence, and from their having few ties to engage their affections here. They are obſerved, indeed, to ſtruggle hard in the hour of death, but that is from ſoundneſs of conſtitution. Life with them is not waſted. The whole of it is at once taken from them.

Many men wiſh for ſudden death, becauſe, ſay they, it is preferable to a lingering and painful illneſs. I doubt whether a really good man ever ſeriouſly formed or expreſſed this wiſh. Such a man would not wiſh to ruſh abruptly into the preſence of his maker. Beſides, the laſt illneſs is not always painful, and how exquiſitely conſoling to the ſurvivors are the dying words of a good man!

To wiſh to die ſuddenly, or to wiſh for any particular mode of death, is not very reſpectful to the giver of life. Such a wiſh puſhed to the extreme, that is allowed to dwell in the mind, *may* beget a propenſity to ſuicide. The ſuicide commits his guilt, becauſe he wiſhes to preſcribe the day and manner of his death.

Sudden death ought not to be deſired, even on account of the affairs of this life. Few men have arranged their affairs ſo as that no confuſion can ariſe from their being haſtily ſnatched away. Whole families have been ruined by this.

Few men are deſirous to die. Againſt misfortunes of all kinds, there are ſo many reſources, that we are inclined to make various experiments before we ſeek refuge in death. In

* Hiſtory of the Revolution of France, vol. ii, page 155.

the

the immediate preſſure of heavy diſtreſs, we become fretful, and expreſs a wiſh for death. But it is ſeldom ſincere, and we ſhew that courage in acts which we reject in words. We never think ſo highly of the dignity of human nature, as when we contemplate the dangers and difficulties from which ſome men extricate themſelves.

We often wiſh for the death of our friends, and humbly and reverently we may do this in certain caſes; as, when they are deprived of reaſon, and according to the beſt opinion, irrecoverably ſo; when they ſuffer the dreadful pains of a lingering diſeaſe, which, in all human probability, muſt prove fatal at laſt, and in the mean time, diſtracts their minds. With ſimilar ſentiments, alſo, we contemplate the agonies of helpleſs children, who cannot expreſs their wants.

To wiſh the death of others, becauſe they are old, and cannot partake of our amuſements, becauſe they are unwell, and not diſpoſed to bear with our follies, or becauſe a combination of age and diſeaſe has rendered them leſs agreeable than we once knew them to be—is the ſign of a very bad heart, and a very weak head. This is really a refinement upon cruelty. I have heard of a nation who put to death old men, that they might not be burdenſome. They were merciful, compared to the others.

Healthy old age is a fine ſubject of contemplation, but we know not that it can be acquired. Few very old men, who are healthy, have lived by ſyſtem; and according to the ſignificant expreſſion of our Engliſh Seneca, a healthy old man is but a *tower undermined.*

Few healthy old men ſeem to act preciſely as we ſhould think their ſituation requires. They have all the gaiety and frivolity of youth. *We* are no doubt, pleaſed with this, but does it pleaſe upon reflection? The young *may* die; the old *muſt*.

The author I have already quoted ſays, 'It matters not how a man dies, but how he lives. The act of dying is not of importance, it laſts ſo ſhort a time.'

The act of dying, the expiration of the laſt breath, is certainly not of importance, unleſs as cloſing the ſcene, but it *does* matter how a man dies, in whatever manner he may have lived. It is the moſt ſolemn act man can perform. It is that which completes his character, diſcovers his principles, and affords the greateſt conſolation, or the greateſt miſery to his friends. It is important, becauſe he throws off all diſguiſe.

Yet ſo ſhort is the period allotted for this, that we are generally inclined to compare the paſt with the preſent, and, if we do *not* diſtruſt the ſincerity of a dying man, we are not apt to venerate it. It is good to die well; but it is better to live well. There ſeems a compulſion in the former; in the latter all is voluntary.

The inſenſibility with which ſome men die is not a matter of wonder. Such is the nature of man, when hardened by a courſe of wickedneſs, and ſuch is his bigotry, when his life has been devoted to the propagation of infidelity, that we are not to wonder if obduracy and pride ſhould ſtand unappalled before the king of terrors.

We are not to wonder if men who have, throughout a long life, reaſoned themſelves into error, ſhould be tenacious of it at laſt, and ſhould ſtruggle hard to give the world a favourable idea of their conſtancy. Fortunately, however, for mankind, this mode of death has few recommendations. The philoſophers of France, even on the ſcaffold, are not *yet* objects of envy.

'No national man can die without uneaſy apprehenſions.' A more juſt apophthegm never was delivered. Let any one add it to his ſtock of experience, and he will confirm it. Enthuſiaſm may delude the weak, but humble hope and anxiety will diſtinguiſh

diſtinguiſh the end of the rational Chriſtian.

If we diſlike the ſullen obſtinacy, and conſtrained and unnatural fortitude, of an impious man in the hour of death, we yet more blame him who ſeems to make a ſport and jeſt of death. The witticiſms aſcribed to ſir Thomas More, on the ſcaffold, cannot fail to leſſen his character in the opinion of all rational and thinking men. It would have been nothing to jeſt with *men*, but before *whom* was he immediately to appear?

Apologies have been written and even publiſhed for ſuicide. It is hard to conjecture what any reaſonable being can advance in favour of ſuch a crime, in the eighteenth century. The frequent inſtances of ſuicide among the ancient heathens, and the modern profeſſed, theoretical and practical infidels, are eaſily accounted for. It is, however, very abſurd for any man to attempt the defence of a crime, which few men, if any, commit in the full exerciſe of their reaſon.

The litany preſcribes a petition againſt 'ſudden death'—grounded, as all that compoſition is, upon the principles of Chriſtianity. This manner of death, it may frequently be obſerved, makes the greateſt impreſſion on the minds of the ſurvivors. They never forget it. It is always attended with circumſtances which, however often repeated, will always command a powerful intereſt. To ſee a man in perfect health one hour, and dead the next, is a conception too big for our philoſophy. We know that it ſometimes happens, but we never reckon upon it.

I knew an eminent and learned phyſician, who for many years aſſerted that he ſhould die ſuddenly. The event fulfilled his prediction. He paſſed from perfect health to death in a minute. He ſaid he knew it would be ſo from a particular affection about his left breaſt. I know not the effect this produced upon his friends. But his death, was to thoſe whom he had principally confided in, no ſurpriſe.

We are leſs ſhocked, and leſs impreſſed by that death, which is the conſequence of long illneſs. Man conquers every misfortune, by dwelling upon it, and by an innate principle of ſeeking his own happineſs. Sincere grief, if it were long-lived, would not be natural, and certainly not rational.

The uneaſy apprehenſions under which ſome good men die, ought to be no diſcouragement to others. Theſe may be accounted for from various circumſtances which, we are taught to believe, bear no relation to the eternal welfare of the deceaſed. The ſanguine and the doubtful predominate alike, whatever be the moral or immoral character of a man. Of the two, we have moſt difficulty in accounting for confirmed hope: contrition may be eaſily accounted for. No man lives who has not much to repent of; and we are not to think the worſe of him, who devotes his dying hours to that penitence which cannot be practiſed in the grave. C.

LIFE OF GEORGE LESLEY.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THE following life of a very extraordinary perſonage was tranſlated by the late ſir David Dalrymple, lord Hailes, whoſe extenſive learning, and indefatigable reſearch are evinced by his numerous original publications, and by the many works of merit which he reſcued from oblivion. It never was publiſhed, a few copies only having been printed for the amuſement of his friends, of whom I had the honour to be one. It is a real curioſity in many reſpects, and depicts the ſtate of controverſial theology at the beginning of the laſt century, in a manner not a little intereſt-

ing. There is, likewiſe, an air of romance in it, which will not be its leaſt recommendation to a certain claſs of readers.

I am, ſir, yours, &c.

J. C.

GEORGE LESLEY, of Monymuſk, was an eminent Capuchin friar, in the early part of the ſeventeenth century. J. B. Rinuccini, archbiſhop of Fermo, the intimate friend of Leſley, drew up an account of his life. Francis Barrault, *Procureur de la Doctrine Chreſtienne*, tranſlated this account into the French language from the original Italian, and publiſhed it at Paris, with an approbation ſigned by Yves Pinſard, prior, and Charles Thebault, ſub-prior, of the great convent of Jacobins. The following is an abridgement of that work.

James count Leſley, and Jean Wood his wife, perſons no leſs noble than rich, dwelt in Aberdeen. At the end of the firſt year of their marriage, they had a ſon, George. The great pains which the neareſt relations of this child beſtowed in educating him, ſerved only to diſorder all the powers of his ſoul; for while he ſucked the milk of his mother, to live in this world, he ſucked the *venom* of Calvin, to die to heaven. The death of count James happened ſoon after. He left his ſon George heir to his opulent eſtates; and by his teſtament he provided, that the boy ſhould be bred at Paris.

Jean Wood married the baron of Torrey; and her ſon George, being now in his eighth year, ſhe ſent him to Paris, with a noble equipage, and a train fitting his rank. She entruſted him to the care of a wiſe and judicious preceptor, and recommended, above all things, ſteadineſs in the Proteſtant religion. The boy applied himſelf diligently to his ſtudies. He became acquainted at ſchool with two brothers of an illuſtrious family. His young companions inſenſibly gained his confidence, talked with him on ſubjects of controverſy, and introduced him to the acquaintance of their father. He completed what his ſons had begun, convinced Leſley of the errors in which he had been brought up, and at length made him a proſelyte to the Roman catholic faith. His preceptor, having diſcovered this change of religion, wrote an account of it to Aberdeen. His mother ſent him a letter, thundering out her maledictions; ſhe threatened to diſown him for her ſon, to abandon him to beggary, to deprive him of his eſtates, and to blot out his name from the genealogical tree of the family. Theſe were the ſofteſt expreſſions of her letter. Perceiving, however, that threats had no effect, ſhe changed her language, and earneſtly implored him to return to the Proteſtant faith. But to no purpoſe: Leſley reſiſted every ſolicitation with inflexible conſtancy. Then his mother recalled the preceptor, withdrew all ſupplies in money, loaded her ſon with her curſes, and formally renounced him. Here the archbiſhop of Fermo exclaims, 'Alas! to what lengths will not obſtinate zeal go in matters of religion! How could a mother be ſo unnatural, as to deprive her ſon of the fortune to which his birth intitled him!'

Leſley, thus beggared and baniſhed, was ſupremely happy: he had loſt Scotland, but he had gained the univerſe. The father of his two companions gave him ſhelter, and treated him as his own ſon. Leſley having attained to the age of ſixteen, accompanied them in a tour through Italy. At Rome he became acquainted with Ange de Joyeuſe, a Capuchin friar, known in the world under the title of count de Bouchage, and was greatly edified by his conferences with that extraordinary man. He reſolved to become a Capuchin, and accordingly offered himſelf to the general, Jerom de Caſtel-Ferrato; but the general doubted whether he could, conſiſtently with certain bulls of the pope, receive the ſon of heretics among the ſons of St. Francis. Leſley inſtantly demanded an audience of the pope. At that time, Paul V ſat on the papal throne; a pontiff, to whom Chriſtendom

tendom erected, in the heart of every Chriſtian, two ſtatues, the one of juſtice, and the other of peace.

The entry into the audience chamber appeared to Leſley, like that into the Moſaical ſanctuary. Juſt as he lifted up his eyes to adore the pontiff, he was dazzled with an unuſual ſplendor: the room ſeemed to him more luminous than the ſun; and he thought that all the rays of light were combined to form a tiara for the majeſty of the ſacred head. This viſion was frequently related by Leſley to the archbiſhop of Fermo, who obſerves, that a light of that nature, however imperceptible to mortal eyes, always ſurrounds the Roman pontiff. The young proſelyte could not find words to expreſs his requeſt: but the pope, being inſtructed by heaven, underſtood, and granted it. Leſley was, accordingly, received, as a novice, among the Capuchins, and performed, cheerfully, the duties of that probationary ſtate; and indeed, ſince the dew of a fair morning ſupplies the oyſter with pearls, and the bee with honey, much is to be expected from a young lord, who devotes himſelf to a monaſtic life. Having contrived to ſail with a favourable wind, he was led happily into that port which placed him out of the reach of all the tempeſts of this world; and, under the name of *brother Archangel*, he became a Capuchin. It will be remarked, that, at this time, he had not arrived at majority.

Archangel had formerly made a competent progreſs in literature, at the univerſity of Paris. He now applied himſelf to philoſophy and theological ſtudies; and having finiſhed his courſe of education among the Capuchins, began to preach. Since the time of his leaving Scotland, near twenty years had elapſed: his mother, notwithſtanding the numerous progeny of her ſecond marriage, ſtill remembered her outcaſt *George*: at length, ſhe learnt that he was one of the order of St. Francis, a Capuchin; and this order was repreſented to her as being altogether baſe and contemptible, even in the opinion of the Roman catholics themſelves.

Her firſt thoughts were, to hire ſome perſon to go from Scotland to Italy, and aſſaſſinate her ſon; for, to ſhed his blood, with the purpoſe of preſerving the ſplendour of his family, did not, in her opinion, ſhock the laws of nature: but, after more mature deliberation, ſhe reſolved to ſend the eldeſt ſon of her ſecond marriage to Italy, that he might prevail on his brother to quit the diſgraceful profeſſion of Capuchin. She promiſed withal, that Archangel ſhould not be ſolicited to depart from his religious opinions; and ſhe even gave aſſurances, that the moſt honourable employments in his own country awaited him, though a Roman catholic.

The young baron of Torrey found his brother at Urbino, and under a feigned name, preſented a letter to him from his mother. Archangel would not open it without leave of the guardian. The baron, ſurpriſed at this mark of clerical obedience, diſcovered himſelf, and urged his brother to quit the habit of St. Francis; and, in the name of their mother, told him, that ſhe had preſerved entire the poſſeſſions of his anceſtors, which he might enjoy together with the delicious gardens of Monymuſk. Archangel made this anſwer, 'I am thankful that my mother is alive, for then I may yet hope that ſhe will not be damned.'—The Capuchins entertained the ſtranger with as much aſſiduity, as Sarah did the angels; and the guardian appointed a houſe in Urbino, for his reception. 'It was the will of Divine Providence,' ſays the archbiſhop of Fermo, 'that a heretic ſhould be an eye witneſs of that abſolute dominion which Chriſtian and religious poverty has over the wealth of others.'

Frederic Maria de Rovere, duke of Urbino, reigned at that time. He received the ſtranger with extraordinary demonſtrations of eſteem; and, with the aid of the Capuchins, and of

all the other eccleſiaſtics of Urbino, ſedulouſly laboured for his converſion: Archangel did what was in his power toward it, and offered to yield up his right to the family-eſtate in favour of his brother.—The baron embraced the Roman catholic faith. This converſion was celebrated by a ſolemn *Te Deum*, by a diſcharge of muſquetry, and by fire-works. The duke gave a magnificent feaſt on that occaſion, and invited all the Capuchins to it. The ſight of the different parts of the deſert ſerved as ſo many ladders, to elevate the fathers to the moſt ſublime contemplations; while they admired the ſkill of the confectioner, in moulding ſugar-candy into ſtatues, and in condenſing liquors, they thought that it was a thing yet more admirable, to melt the hard heart, and to render pliable the ſtubborn will, of a heretic. The duke told the convert, that this feaſt was intended as a feeble repreſentation of the feaſt made, at that moment, in paradiſe, on account of his converſion.

The two brothers agreed to bring over, if poſſible, their aged parent to the faith, and even to ſow the ſeeds of religion throughout Scotland. It was concerted between them, that the baron ſhould go firſt, and Archangel wait for ſome favourable opportunity of following him. The baron having received a preſent of a gold chain and crucifix from the duke, left Urbino, and went directly to London. He made his journey from London to Scotland by ſea: but the voyage was tedious; the croſs winds obliged him, for more ſafety, to land every night. The old lady was much diſappointed on finding that her eldeſt ſon has remained in Italy. The baron endeavoured to comfort her, but in vain. 'I ſee,' ſaid ſhe, 'that George is obſtinately reſolved to follow his ignominious courſe of life, and that you are ſo weak as not to have courage to hate him.—Theſe are the fine leſſons of a religion, which, in order to give tranquillity to the mind, begins with the overthrow of natural duty.'

When the baron retired to reſt, he chanced to leave the gold chain and crucifix on a little ivory table in his bed-chamber. His mother coming in diſcovered them, and ſoon learnt from himſelf that he had changed his religion. She loaded him with imprecations, and ordered him to quit the caſtle. This ſhort account of what happened in Scotland, was neceſſary for underſtanding the after events of the lives of friar Archangel and his family. We now return to him.

Mary of Medicis, regent of France, wiſhed to have a Capuchin preacher at court: Archangel was appointed to that office. As a court-preacher, he diſcourſed of thoſe virtues *alone*, which are proper for great princes; and as he never cenſured any thing, unleſs by allegories and figures, the good breeding of his ſermons correſponded with the dignity of his pulpit. About that time, Gregory XV ſucceeded Paul V. He inſtituted the congregation *De propaganda fide*; and committed the ſuperintendency of it to his nephew cardinal Ludoviſio, the Hercules who aided that old Atlas, Gregory, in ſupporting the globe. While Gregory ſlept; his bulls converted the Antipodes. Neither did the ſun of charity forget to convey its warmth to the froſts of Scotland. The pope, in conſequence of celeſtial and infallible inſpiration, appointed Archangel to be chief of the miſſion to Great Britain.

It happened that an ambaſſador from Spain to the court of London, was then at Paris, appointed to negociate a marriage between the Infanta and the prince of Wales. He wiſhed to have an Engliſh interpreter: Archangel undertook the office; by means of it he might, under the appearance of a layman, diſcharge with more facility, the duties of his miſſion. 'We are attached,' ſays the archbiſhop of Fermo, 'to external appearances.' This made Archangel unwilling

unwilling to lay aſide the Capuchin habit: he feared that, by ſeculariſing the body, he might profane his ſoul. But what cannot the diſpenſations and commands of the church perform? At length, he felt, and demonſtrated, that one may *merit* in ſilk as well as in woollen. Archangel was now an interpreter in temporal matters, and the prophet of the deſigns of heaven.

He ſent for his brother out of Scotland, and concerted with him the proper meaſures for the ſucceſs of his miſſion. The Spaniſh ambaſſador, on quitting England, preſented Archangel with a fine horſe. Archangel ſet out for Scotland. One of his ſervants led the Spaniſh horſe. Archangel was mounted on a hackney, which he had bought at court; but he made moſt of the journey on foot, and only rode when he ſaw paſſengers, who, from his walking, might ſuſpect him to be a Capuchin. He wrote a letter, in his own perſon, to his mother, and dated it from Urbino. In it he recommended the bearer as a gentleman of great worth, and as his particular acquaintance.

When he arrived at the caſtle of Monymuſk, his mother was buſied, with her two daughters-in law, in embroidering a ſilk-bed for her eldeſt ſon, ſhould he return from Italy. Archangel preſented the letter: his mother read it, not without ſome emotions of diſpleaſure; yet ſhe politely welcomed the ſtranger, telling him that the *houſe was his own*. Edward, her youngeſt ſon, came and paid his reſpects to the ſtranger; and a magnificent feaſt was ſerved up.

According to the mode of the country, the *heretic* chaplain ſat at table. That man enjoyed a ſalary from the family of upward of ſeventy pounds ſterling, (300 crowns). *Here* the archbiſhop of Fermo pathetically exclaims, 'So high has the power of darkneſs aſcended, that it ſells, at a great price, the errors of mere ignorance!' Archangel was ſtruck with horror, on ſeeing the impious miniſter in the company; and whenever he caſt his eyes toward that heretic, he thought that the ſumptuous banquet became a gloomy funeral ſupper. 'How can I,' ſaid he to himſelf, 'reliſh any viands that are infected with ſuch poiſon? And how will truth find entrance into a houſe, amid the rogueries of this abominable miniſter?' In the courſe of converſation, the ſtranger avowed himſelf to be a Roman catholic; and artfully introduced ſuch apologies for the ſuppoſed abſent Capuchin, as drew a tear from his mother. Archangel, ſtudious to gain the good graces of the family, made his youngeſt brother a preſent of the Spaniſh horſe.

For five days he remained in diſguiſe; but early in the morning of the ſixth, as he walked about near his mother's apartment, he obſerved, that the entrance to a fine *vollery*, which he remembered in his father's time, was built up; and he ſaid inadvertently to a ſervant, 'When was the vollery taken away?' His mother overheard the queſtion; and wondered how a ſtranger, who had reſided at Monymuſk no more than five days, ſhould know aught of a vollery that had been removed eighteen years before. At that moment the caſtle gate was opened, and Archangel went out to ſee the horſes exerciſed in the manage. As ſoon as he returned, his mother ſent for him, and a diſcovery enſued. Great joy prevailed in the caſtle of Monymuſk. The baron, who had been driven away, was ſent for, to ſhare in the happineſs of the family. The news of the ſafe return of George Leſley went through the town. The old lady received a thouſand viſits of congratulation; and the fame of this event, ſo long wiſhed for, reached even to Aberdeen. Fires of rejoicing were lighted up on the battlements of the caſtle of Monymuſk; the inhabitants of the town diſcharged their culverins, and let off many ſky-rockets, which ſeemed as the aerial meſſengers of their gratitude.

Amid

Amid such general festivity, the heretic minister alone was sullen. 'Some fury of hell had seized his heart, and, with her envenomed serpents, gradually consumed his bowels.' —The lady told her son, that this day of joy repaid all the affliction that she had experienced, and all the tears that she had shed, for twenty-five years; that she was willing to leave him undisturbed in the religion which he had chosen; and that she looked for the like privilege from him with respect to her religion. Archangel instantly perceived, that this proposed compromise was owing to the artifices of the heretical minister; and, he made answer, that 'belief was independent of every mortal; and therefore, in a thing so sublime, he would not have the temerity to undertake aught of himself.'

He now began to discharge the duties of his mission: he collected what auditors he could in the forests, and taught them. Sometimes he visited the preaching places of the heretics; and, impatient at seeing such numbers abused by falsehoods and lies, he cried aloud, 'The minister alters the gospel; credit not his impostures; but come to me, and I will teach you the true word.' The congregation dropt off by degrees, and left the minister with hardly any audience. Archangel led them to a neighbouring mountain; and, after some preparations related by his historian, began to preach. Scarcely had he discoursed for half a quarter of an hour, when he saw the people change colour, shudder at his thundering expressions, pour out tears, throw themselves at his feet, and pray for mercy and reconciliation with the ancient or Roman church, from which they had unhappily separated themselves. The Calvinist ministers, enraged at his success, informed the court, that Archangel made converts with the view of withdrawing men from their allegiance. 'Such (says the archbishop of Fermo) is the usual stratagem of those miserable heretics, to check the progress of religion, to have those punished who perform its exercises, and to turn away the simple from that veneration, which otherwise they would shew to the relics of the men, who have suffered capital punishment for preaching up and defending the faith.'

The success of Archangel's mission was very great. In the space of eight months he converted four thousand persons about Monymusk and Aberdeen; and had he not been recalled soon after, he would have prepared that whole country for submitting itself to the church of Rome. But the conversion of his mother was what Archangel had most at heart. Having found a convenient opportunity, he thus addressed her: 'Perhaps you imagine, that were I to speak to you of the faith, I should use scholastic subtilties, and the artifices of Italy, confound you with sophisms, and leave you to grope in the dark.—No, heaven forbid. Call your minister, hear my arguments and his, and then judge for yourself.' The proposal seemed fair; and the old lady sent immediately for the minister. He endeavoured to elude the conference, saying, that the true faith ought never to be called in question, and that he who pretended to bring light was perhaps a minister of darkness. But the old lady would not listen to his excuse. She told him, that the conference might have the effect of bringing her son back to the Protestant religion; and that no rewards could be too great for him, who should be the instrument in so happy a change. The heretic knew not how to avoid this consideration of worldly interest; and therefore he engaged himself in the fatal conference.

Archangel thus began the debate: 'Since you say that your faith is so efficacious, you are obliged to shew me what it is.' 'Certainly,' answered the minister; 'it is the faith of Calvin.' 'Into what church is it that Calvin has received his be-

lievers?'—'Into the reformed church of Geneva.'—'If ſo, we muſt ſee wherein your church of Geneva differs from my church of Rome.'—'It differs in all particulars, and eſpecially in this, that we acknowledge nothing, and believe nothing, but what is preciſely mentioned in ſcripture.' Then Archangel ſaid, ſmiling, 'If you can ſhow me that any mention is made in ſcripture of the church of Geneva, I ſhall give my mother no more trouble about religious controverſies.'

The impious creature made anſwer, with downcaſt eyes, that, if time were allowed him, he ſhould undoubtedly find out the paſſage that mentions the church of Geneva. Archangel gave him four-and twenty hours. And thus ended the firſt conference. During the night, the two champions prepared themſelves for combat. The catholic mortified his body with haircloth; while the other, full of madneſs and confuſion, conſtantly turned over the leaves of the bible; and not being able to find what he looked for, curſed himſelf, and, as Saul did, invoked the demons aſſiſtance.

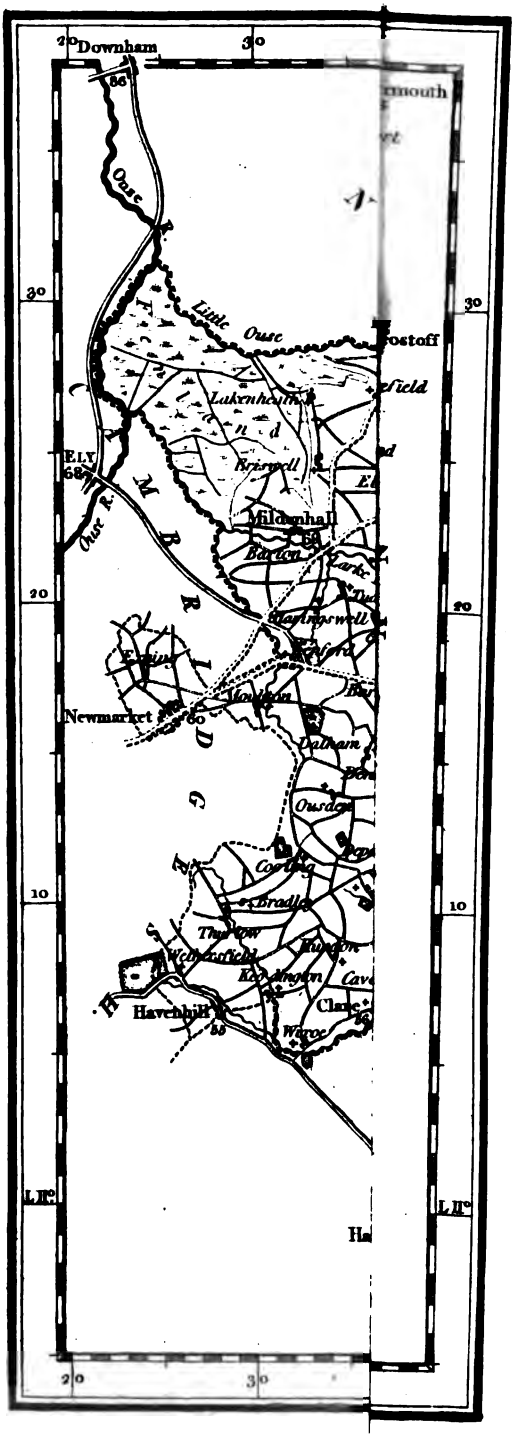
At the hour appointed, the lady, like another Deborah, gave the ſignal for battle. 'You promiſed,' ſaid ſhe, 'to find our church of Geneva in the bible.' 'Madam,' ſaid the miniſter, 'had I more time, I ſhould certainly have found the paſſage.' And on being ſtill further preſſed, he added, 'You muſt not ſuppoſe that it is ſo very eaſy a matter to find paſſages in the ſcripture, which ſpeak preciſely of that church; and, for proof of this, do you aſk your ſon, and tell him, that ſince I cannot find our church there, he ought to find his.' 'That is more than I undertook,' ſaid Archangel; 'but ſince you aſk it, order a bible to be brought, and I will preſently ſhew you our church in it.' Then, in preſence of the miniſter, already confounded with the offer that Archangel made, he opened the epiſtle to the Romans, and ſhewed her how St. Paul, in the firſt chapter, gave thanks that the *Roman faith* was proclaimed to all the world, and afterward expreſſed his deſire of going to Rome, to confer with the Roman church on ſome difficulties which occurred concerning their common faith.

The lady admired the clearneſs of the words; and the heretic was forced to admit the church of Rome to have been originally the *true* church; but he ſaid, that afterward, having been adulterated in a thouſand ways, ſhe became that infamous woman revealed to St. John in Patmos; and that the holy reformation of Geneva was eſtabliſhed in her place. 'Then,' replied Archangel, with a holy ardour, 'you muſt ſhew me from ſcripture how the reformation of Geneva has been ſubſtituted in place of the church.' The *deceiver* was ſtruck dumb, and could not make any anſwer to this laſt obſervation. There enſued three more conferences, in all which the miniſter was confounded. At laſt the lady cried out, 'Son, what is the meaning of this? I have lodged error in my houſe for ſo long a time, without having ever opened my eyes to diſcover it.' And ſaying this, ſhe broke up the conference, and retired to her chamber, without caſting a look on the miniſter. He preſently aſked his diſmiſſion. And thus the impious man was diſgracefully expelled from the caſtle; and the tutelary cherubim of that manſion uſed no other flaming ſword to drive him out, ſave the words of the old lady. The mother, her daughter-in-law, her youngeſt ſon, and all the officers and ſervants about the caſtle, were converted to the Roman catholic religion.

[To be concluded in our next.]

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, September 1794.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,98	55	63,5	56,5	3	N 1	hazy. wind E. cloudy
	2	29,98	65,5	66	51,5	5	S 1	drizzling. gentle rain at night
2	7	29,81	59	67	57	3	W 2	
	2	29,83	65	66	4[illegible]	3	W 3	
3	7	30,05	57	63,5	52,5	2	NNW 2	
	2	30,12	66	65	45	3	N 2	
4	7	30,14	52	61	55	2	N 1	hazy
	2	30,08	64,5	64,5	47	3	SSE 1	hazy. rainy night
5	7	29,86	57,5	63,5	62,5	6	SSE 1	chiefly rain
	2	29,76	61,5	65	58,5	6	SE 1	chiefly rain
6	7	29,56	56	63	62	5	NNE 1	little rain
	2	29,40	62	65	58,5	4	NNE 2	little rain
7	7	29,48	56,5	63	59,5	5	N 1	little rain at times
	2	29,50	64	65	57,5	4	ENE 2	. frequent ſhowers
8	7	29,71	57	63	61	5	ENE 2	much rain in ſhowers
	2	29,68	61,5	64,5	62	4	ENE 2	frequent ſhowers
9	7	29,68	58	63,5	62,5	5	ENE 1	frequent ſhowers
F	2	29,74	62	65	62	5	ENE 2	ſhowers. much rain in the night
10	7	29,87	57	63	62	5	ENE 1	. little rain
	2	29,95	61,5	64,5	58,5	4	NE 1	. fine. clear night
11	7	30,06	52	61	61,5	3	N 1	
	2	30,07	62	62,5	52	3	NNE 1	
12	7	30,19	54	61	57	5	N 1	. leſs cloudy
	2	30,20	61	62,5	50,5	4	N 1	
13	7	30,13	53,5	60	52	5	N 1	hazy. leſs cloudy
	2	29,99	59	60,5	47,5	4	NNE 1	
14	7	29,84	52,5	59	56	5	N 1	. leſs cloudy : little rain
	2	29,82	57,5	62	55	4	NNE 1	. little rain at times
15	7	29,79	51,5	59	57,5	4	E 1	
	2	29,82	59	61	51,5	4	E 1	
16	7	29,87	57,5	61	56	5	S 2	. leſs cloudy
	2	29,89	66	64	56	4	SSW 2	. little rain at times. fine night
17	7	29,85	59,5	63,5	59	3	S 2	
	2	29,80	68	66	51	3	SSW 2	: little rain
18	7	29,49	60	64	58	5	S 1	little rain. more wind and fine
	2	29,48	64	65	50	2	SSW 3	. leſs wind
19	7	29,62	53	63	57	3	SSW 1	. little rain. fine
	2	29,53	63,5	64	50	2	S 3	. much rain at night
20	7	29,22	54,5	61	56	5	SSW 3	rain. fine and ſhowers
	2	29,21	60	63	53	3	W 4	. leſs wind. clear night
21	7	29,59	50	59	52	1	WSW 2	
	2	29,68	61	63,5	48	2	WSW 2	. more cloudy night : little rain
22	7	29,77	57	62	57	5	S 1	little rain. leſs cloudy
	2	29,72	66	65	56	4	SW 1	. little wet at night.
23	7	29,53	62	65	57	5	S 2	. chiefly rain and more wind : fine
	2	29,40	65	66,5	53,5	3	SW 4	. leſs wind. clear night : ſhowers
24	7	29,32	56	63,5	60	3	S 1	hazy. little rain : thunder
N	2	29,35	56	63,5	56	5	NNW 1	. ſhowers. fine night
25	7	29,52	47	58,5	55	3	W 1	. little wet : ſhower
	2	29,62	58	62	54	4	N 2	. ſhowers. fine
26	7	29,81	44,5	57	52	3	NNW 2	
	2	29,89	51,5	58,5	40,5	4	NNW 1	
27	7	29,98	42,5	54,5	52,5	3	NW 1	
	2	30,04	51	56	46	3	WNW 1	. clear night
28	7	30,13	39	51	50	2	NW 1	
	2	30,14	51,5	55	47,5	2	NW 1	
29	7	30,25	46,5	53,5	51,5	h	NW 1	little wet : leſs hazy
	2	30,27	56	57	53,5	3	WNW 1	hazy. foggy night
30	7	30,30	50	56	55	3	NW 0	foggy. fine : cloudy
	2	30,28	61	60	52	5	NNW 1	. gentle rain at eve and night



Downham
Ouse R.
Little Ouse
Lakenheath
Briswell
Mildenhall
Barton
Newmarket
Dalham
Ousden
Cooling
Bradley
Thurlow
Kedlington
Clare
Havenhill
Weroe
Ely
Ouse R.

UNIV. OF MICH.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* September 1794.

THE moſt prevailing diſeaſe was inflammatory ſore throat: the tonſils were in general much enlarged, and ſuppuration frequently took place; the fever, which attended it, was conſiderable, with daily remiſſions; now and then an eruption of a bright red colour made its appearance, particularly on the breaſt, ſometimes on the thighs and legs, and ſometimes nearly covering the whole body; where it was very conſiderable there was in the courſe of the diſeaſe a ſtrong tendency to *typhus*; it was perfectly diſtinct, and conſiderably raiſed above the cuticle without any intervening redneſs, and differed very much from *ſcarlatina*; no ſuppuration took place, but the eruption was terminated by a ſlight deſquamation. The inflammation of the fauces and difficulty of ſwallowing were alleviated by inhaling the vapour of hot vinegar, and by acid gargles; bliſtering the throat proved eminently uſeful, particularly where there was any putrid tendency, and moderate doſes of vitriolic acid, or the tincture of roſes, proved the moſt efficacious medicine. Complaints of the bowels were ſtill prevalent, owing to large ſecretions of acrid bile, which continued to irritate them till completely evacuated. Thoſe who in the courſe of the preceding months had been afflicted with rheumatiſm, ſuffered a relapſe on being guilty of any imprudence. The ſmallpox ſtill continued frequent, and proved more fatal than in the laſt month.

An Account of SUFFOLK: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

SUFFOLK is bounded on the north by Norfolk; on the eaſt by the German Ocean, on the ſouth by Eſſex, and on the weſt by Cambridgeſhire. It is fifty-eight miles long from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-eight broad from north to ſouth. It lies in the dioceſe of Norwich; is divided into twenty-two hundreds, containing twenty-eight market-towns, and 575 pariſhes, and ſends ſixteen members to parliament. It is, in general, a level country, without any conſiderable eminences. In reſpect to ſoil it may be divided into three portions. The ſea-coaſt, to ſome diſtance inland, is for the moſt part ſandy, and is diſtributed into arable land, heaths, and marſhes. The arable produces excellent barley; and toward the ſouth-eaſt great quantities of carrots are grown. The heaths afford extenſive ſheep-walks; and the marſhes feed numbers of cattle. The ſoil has in many parts been much improved by ſhell-marl, (called here *crag*) of which vaſt beds have been diſcovered, particularly in the neighbourhood of Woodbridge. The ſea ſhore is chiefly compoſed of loamy cliffs, which are continually falling down, undermined by the waves. Hence great changes have been effected on this coaſt; and ſome towns, once conſiderable, as Dunwich and Aldborough, have been almoſt waſhed away by the ſea. About Orfordneſs there are various ſalt-water creeks and inlets, which form extenſive marſhes.

The internal part of the county, from north to ſouth, and acroſs quite to the ſouth-weſt angle, is in general a ſtrong clayey ſoil, fertile to a great degree in all the objects of huſbandry. A part of it, called High Suffolk, has a ſoil ſo ſtiff and tenacious, that its roads in wet ſeaſons are ſcarcely paſſable. The great product of this tract is butter, which is exported to London and other parts in great quantities. Much cheeſe too is made here; but, as it is only ſupplementary to the butter, it has gained, almoſt proverbi-

ally, the character of the worſt in England. Beſide grain of all ſorts, beans are grown abundantly in the middle parts of Suffolk. Hemp is likewiſe cultivated to a conſiderable extent, and ſpun and woven on the ſpot into cloth of various degrees of fineneſs. Some hops are grown not far from Sudbury.

The north-weſtern portion of Suffolk is an open country, and forms a conſiderable part of the wide tract of barren heath which occupies ſo much of this quarter of the kingdom. It is chiefly in warrens and ſheep-walks, but interſperſed with poor arable land. The extreme angle, bordering on the Ely fens, partakes of their nature.

On the whole, this county is one of the moſt thriving with reſpect to agriculture, and its farmers are opulent and ſkilful. The culture of turnips prevails here almoſt as much as in Norfolk. They have a very excellent breed of draught horſes, middle ſized, and remarkably ſhort made, capable of vaſt exertions.

Suffolk was formerly as diſtinguiſhed for its trade and manufactures as for its agriculture; but theſe have for many years been on the decline.

One of the firſt ſeats of the Flemings, who were brought over by Edward III, to teach the Engliſh the art of manufacturing their own wool, was Sudbury; and the town, in conſequence, became very populous and opulent. Its trade is now in great part diverted into other channels, having left behind it the burden of a numerous poor. However, many kinds of thin ſtuffs are ſtill made here; particularly ſays, bunting for navy colours, and burial crapes. Some of the neighbouring towns, eſpecially Needham-market and Lavenham, participate in this manufacture; and the poor throughout the whole county are employed in making worſted yarn. The manufactured goods are chiefly ſent to London. At Woodbridge and Southwold much fine ſalt is made; and Loweſtoffe partakes with Yarmouth in the mackerel and herring fiſheries.

The principal rivers of Suffolk are the Stour, which divides it from Eſſex; the Little Ouſe and Waveney, which form its northern limit; the Larke, which, with another ſmall ſtream, is its boundary on the north-weſt; the Deben; the Gipping, and the Orwell.

Ipſwich is the principal town; but the aſſize are generally held at Bury St. Edmund's.

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceaſed in* 1793: *Continued from Page* 195.

DR. WILLIAM ROBERTSON.

DR. William Robertſon, one of the moſt celebrated hiſtorians of his age, was one of thoſe great characters, whoſe private life, flowing in one even and unvaried ſtream, can afford no important information to the biographer, although his writings will be read, to the lateſt poſterity, with undiminiſhed pleaſure. He was born in the year 1721; licenſed in 1743; placed in the pariſh of Gladſmuir in 1744; whence, in 1758, he was tranſlated to lady Yeſter's pariſh in Edinburgh. In 1761, on the death of principal Goldie, he was elected principal of the univerſity of Edinburgh, and appointed one of the miniſters of the old Greyfriars pariſh in that city. About this period, he received the degree of doctor of divinity, and was appointed hiſtoriographer to his majeſty for Scotland, and one of his majeſty's chaplains for that kingdom.

We find it not eaſy to aſcertain at what period were firſt unfolded the great and ſingular talents of a man, who was deſtined to be one of the firſt writers that reſcued this iſland from the reproach of not having any good hiſtorians. In 1759, he publiſhed, in two volumes, quarto, 'The Hiſtory

tory of Scotland, during the reigns of Queen Mary and of King James VI. till his Acceſſion to the Crown of England, with a Review of the Scotch Hiſtory previous to that period.' This work is one of the moſt complete of all modern hiſtories. It is not a dry jejune narrative of events, deſtitute of ornament; nor is it a mere frothy relation, all glow and colouring. The hiſtorian diſcovers a ſufficient ſtore of imagination to engage the reader's attention, with a due proportion of judgment to check the exuberance of fancy. His deſcriptions are animated, and his reflections ſolid. His ſtyle is copious, nervous, and correct; although, perhaps, in ſome parts, there appears too great an affectation of the Salluſtian manner. He has diſplayed conſummate ſkill in rendering ſuch paſſages of our hiſtory, as are familiar to our recollection, agreeable and entertaining. He has embelliſhed old materials with all the elegance of modern dreſs. He has very judiciouſly avoided too circumſtantial a detail of trite facts. His narratives are ſuccinct and ſpirited; his reflections copious, frequent, and pertinent.—In a word, by this Hiſtory (which has ſince been frequently reprinted in octavo) Dr. Robertſon acquired a reputation, which all the efforts of contemporary rivals were unable to diminiſh.

In 1769, Dr. Robertſon publiſhed, in three volumes, quarto, 'The Hiſtory of the Reign of the Emperor Charles V, with a View of the Progreſs of Society in Europe, from the Subverſion of the Roman Empire to the Beginning of the ſixteenth Century.'—The vaſt and general importance of the period which this Hiſtory compriſes, together with the reputation which our hiſtorian had deſervedly acquired, co-operated to raiſe ſuch high expectations in the public, that no work, perhaps, was ever more impatiently wiſhed for, or peruſed with greater avidity. The firſt volume, which is a preliminary one (containing the progreſs of ſociety in Europe, as mentioned in the title) is a very valuable part of the work; for it ſerves not only as a key to the pages that follow, but may be conſidered as a general introduction to the ſtudy of hiſtory, in that period in which the ſeveral powers of Europe were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained (till within a very few years at leaſt) with leſs alterations than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars. Of the hiſtory itſelf, it may be ſufficient to obſerve, that it is juſtly ranked among the capital pieces of hiſtorical excellence. There is an elegance of expreſſion, a depth of diſcernment, and a correctneſs of judgment, which do honour to the hiſtorian. The characters are inimitably penned. They are not contraſted by a ſtudied antitheſis, but by an oppoſition which reſults from a very acute and penetrating inſight into the real merits of each character, fairly deduced from the ſeveral circumſtances of his conduct exemplified in the hiſtory.

In 1777, Dr. Robertſon publiſhed, 'The Hiſtory of America,' in two volumes, quarto. This celebrated work may be conſidered, with great propriety, as a ſequel to the preceding hiſtory. From the cloſe of the fifteenth century, we date the moſt ſpendid era in the annals of modern times. Diſcoveries were then made, the influence of which deſcended to poſterity; and events happened that gave a new direction to the ſpirit of nations. At that period, as before obſerved, the powers of Europe aſſumed their political exiſtence; arranged themſelves in ſtations which (perhaps, with a ſingle memorable exception only) they ſtill continued to hold; and adopted the maxims of conduct by which their councils are ſtill governed. Internal improvements kept pace with external advantages; and, riſing from the ruins of antiquity, literature and the arts began to appear. The invention of printing forwarded the revival

of letters, by facilitating the ſtudy of the ancients. The reformation in religion ſet on foot a ſpirit of enquiry, which, extending itſelf to every thing, laid the foundation of future ſcience. From the ſlumber of ages the human genius at laſt awoke, and, after a pauſe of many centuries, men began to think. To crown this ſplendid period, a hardy and adventurous ſailor wrought a new ſcene of wonders. Conducted by the enthuſiaſm of genius, and aſſiſted by the light of philoſophy, Columbus made the boldeſt of human efforts; and venturing where man had never ventured, upon the unknown interminable ocean, he extended the boundaries of knowledge, diſcovered another hemiſphere, and added, as it were, a new continent to the globe.

To the inhabitants of Europe, America was, in every reſpect, a new world. There the face of the earth changed its appearance. The plants, and trees, and animals, were ſtrange; and nature ſeemed no longer the ſame. A continent opened that appeared to have recently come from the hands of the Creator, and which ſhowed lakes, rivers, and mountains on a grander ſcale, and the vegetable kingdom in greater magnificence, than in the other quarters of the globe; but the animal tribes in a ſtate of degradation, few in number, degenerated in kind, imperfect, and unfiniſhed. The human ſpecies in the earlieſt ſtage of its progreſs, vaſt and numerous nations, in the rudeſt form of the ſavage ſtate which philoſophers have contemplated, and two great empires in the loweſt degree of civilization which any records have tranſmitted to our review, preſented to the philoſophic eye, at this period, the moſt fruitful ſubject of ſpeculation that was to be found in the annals of hiſtory.

The diſcovery of the new world, moreover, was not only a curious ſpectacle to the philoſopher, but, by the change which it effected, an intereſting ſpectacle to the human race. When Columbus ſet ſail for unknown lands, he little expected that he was to make a revolution in the ſyſtem of human affairs, and to form the deſtiny of Europe for ages to come. The importance and celebrity, therefore, of the ſubject, had attracted the attention of philoſophers and hiſtorians. Views and ſketches of the new world had been given by able writers; and ſplendid portions of the American ſtory had been adorned with all the beauties of eloquence. But, prior to the appearance of Dr. Robertſon's hiſtory, no author had beſtowed the mature and profound inveſtigation which ſuch a ſubject required, or had finiſhed, upon a regular plan, that complete narration and perfect whole, which it is the province of the hiſtorian to tranſmit to poſterity. And as the ſubject upon which our author entered was grand, his execution was maſterly. The character of his former works was immediately diſcerned in it. They had been read with uncommon admiration. When the Hiſtory of Scotland was firſt publiſhed, and the author altogether unknown, lord Cheſterfield pronounced it to be equal in eloquence and beauty to the productions of Livy, the pureſt and moſt claſſical of all the Roman hiſtorians. His literary reputation was not confined to his own country: the teſtimony of Europe was ſoon added to the voice of England. It may be mentioned, indeed, as the characteriſtic quality of our author's manner, that he poſſeſſed, in no common degree, that ſupported elevation which is ſuitable to compoſitions of the higher claſs; and, in this Hiſtory of America, he diſplayed that happy union of ſtrength and grace, which becomes the majeſty of the hiſtoric muſe. In the fourth book of his firſt volume, which contains a deſcription of America when firſt diſcovered, and a philoſophical enquiry into the manners and policy of its ancient inhabitants, he diſplays, moreover, ſo much patient inveſtigation and ſound philoſophy; abounds in ſuch beautiful or

intereſting

intereſting deſcription; and exhibits ſuch variety and copiouſneſs of elegant writing, that future times will probably refer to it as that part of his works which gives the beſt idea of his genius, and is the moſt finiſhed of all his productions.

In 1787, appeared a tranſlation of the abbé Clavigero's Hiſtory of Mexico; in which work the author threw out various reflections, tending, in ſeveral inſtances, to impeach the credit of Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtory of America. This attack induced our learned hiſtorian to reviſe his work, and to enquire into the truth of the charges brought againſt it by the hiſtorian of New Spain; and this he appears to have done with a becoming attention to the importance of the facts that are controverted, and to the common intereſts of truth. The reſult he publiſhed, in 1788, under the title of 'Additions and Corrections to the former Editions of Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtory of America.'—In many of the diſputed paſſages, he fully anſwered the abbé Clavigero, and vindicated himſelf: in others, he candidly ſubmitted to correction, and thus gave additional value to his own work.

The literary labours of Dr. Robertſon appear to have been terminated in 1791, by the publication of 'An Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning the Knowledge which the Ancients had of India, and the Progreſs of Trade with that Country prior to the Diſcovery of the Paſſage to it by the Cape of Good Hope: with an Appendix, containing Obſervations on the Civil Polity, the Laws and Judicial Proceedings, the Arts, the Sciences, and Religious Inſtitutions of the Indians'—The peruſal of major Rennell's Memoir for illuſtrating his map of Hindooſtan ſuggeſted to Dr. Robertſon the deſign of examining, more fully than he had done in his Hiſtory of America, into the knowledge which the Ancients had of India, and of conſidering what is certain, what is obſcure, and what is fabulous, in their accounts of that remote country. Of his various performances, this is not that of which the deſign is the moſt extenſive, or the execution the moſt elaborate; but in this Hiſtorical Diſquiſition we perceive the ſame patient aſſiduity in collecting his materials, the ſame diſcernment in arranging them, the ſame perſpicuity of narrative, and the ſame power of illuſtration, which ſo eminently diſtinguiſh his other writings, and which have long rendered them the delight of the Engliſh reader at home, and an honour to Engliſh literature abroad.

As a divine, we do not recollect any publication by Dr. Robertſon, except a Sermon, entitled 'The Situation of the World at the Time of Chriſt's Appearance, and its Connexion with the Succeſs of his Religion, conſidered.' It was preached before the Society in Scotland for propagating Chriſtian Knowledge, at their anniverſary meeting in the High Church of Edinburgh, on Monday, January 6, 1755.—From theſe words in the firſt chapter of the epiſtle to the Coloſſians—'Even the myſtery which hath been hid from ages and generations, but now is made manifeſt to his ſaints,' our ingenious preacher took occaſion to point out ſome remarkable circumſtances in the ſituation of mankind, which prove God to have *manifeſted the myſtery of the goſpel*, at a time when the world ſtood moſt in need of ſuch a revelation, and was beſt prepared for receiving it. And, in order to ſhow that the Chriſtian religion was publiſhed at the moſt proper time, he took a view of the moral, the political, the religious, and the domeſtic ſtate of the world, about the time of our Saviour's appearance. The ſubject is at once curious and important, and treated in a manner equally entertaining and inſtructive.—But our limits will not permit us to enter any further into the contents; and as, probably, it is not now to be met with as a ſingle ſermon, it may be acceptable to ſome of our readers to know, that this excellent

cellent diſcourſe may be found in 'The Proteſtant Syſtem, a Collection of Sermons,' in two volumes, octavo.

Dr. Robertſon cloſed a truly uſeful life, on the 11th of June 1793, at Grange Houſe, near Edinburgh, after a lingering illneſs, which he endured with exemplary fortitude and reſignation. It may be truly obſerved of him, that no man lived more reſpected, or died more ſincerely lamented. Indefatigable in his literary reſearches, and poſſeſſing from nature a ſound and vigorous underſtanding, he acquired a ſtore of uſeful knowledge, which afforded ample ſcope for the exertion of his extraordinary abilities, and raiſed him to the moſt diſtinguiſhed eminence in the republic of letters. As a miniſter of the goſpel, he was a faithful paſtor, and juſtly merited the eſteem and veneration of his flock. Fervent in his devotions, his piety was untinctured with affectation or enthuſiaſm; and his public diſcourſes conſiſted of clear expoſitions of the Scripture, abounding with forcible and animated reaſoning. His converſation was cheerful, entertaining and inſtructive; his manners affable, pleaſing, and endearing.

Dr. Robertſon left three ſons and two daughters. The eldeſt ſon is procurator for the church of Scotland, and an advocate. The ſecond ſon, a captain in the army, diſtinguiſhed himſelf under lord Cornwallis, in ſuch a manner, as to command the warmeſt praiſe from that illuſtrious general. The third ſon is likewiſe an officer in the army. Of the daughters, one was married to the late John Ruſſell, eſq. writer to the ſignet; the other, to Patrick Brydone, eſq. F. R. S. Author of the Tour to Sicily and Malta, in two volumes, octavo.

John Hunter, Eſq.

John Hunter was a younger brother of the late Dr. William Hunter, and was born in the county of Lanerk, in Scotland, about the year 1728. That no particulars can be obtained of the early part of his life is not to be wondered at, ſince, ſo far from exhibiting any indications of future celebrity, he was put apprentice to the humble profeſſion of a wheelwright or carpenter, or, as ſome ſay, a ſhipwright or boat-builder. Whichever it was, however, it was ſo far merely mechanical, as not to require any very extraordinary talents or intellectual acquiſitions. About the year 1746, when his brother William became a public lecturer in anatomy, John Hunter was introduced into his diſſecting room. This was the foundation of his future opulence and fame. He cultivated the practical part of anatomy with ſuch diligence and ſucceſs, that in the year 1757, his brother aſcribed to him a conſiderable ſhare in the merit of a diſcovery, which was at that time the ſubject of a diſpute between doctor Hunter and profeſſor Monro. But as this controverſy, and ſome others in which the two brothers were engaged, are not proper for diſcuſſion in a miſcellaneous work, we muſt refer the profeſſional inquirers to the Medical Commentaries, and to 'The Life of John Hunter, by Jeſſe Foot, Surgeon;' obſerving, however, that Mr. Foot's life of our great anatomiſt and ſurgeon is written with a profeſſed view to detract from his reputation.

In conſequence of ill-health, Mr. Hunter retired from his brother's diſſecting-room, and, in May 1756, became the houſe ſurgeon to St. George's hoſpital, in which ſituation he continued only five months. This was the commencement of his being a ſurgeon. 'John Hunter's education,' ſays Mr. Foot, 'ſeems to have been upon an inverted ratio to all other ſurgeons. He, to become a ſurgeon, ſerved a long apprenticeſhip to anatomical purſuits, and only five months to ſurgical; while others, to become ſurgeons, ſerve their apprenticeſhips with ſurgeons; and, for a year or two, purſue their anatomical ſtudies.—He, therefore, to lay a foundation for becoming a practical ſurgeon,

ſurgeon, obtained an appointment, I believe upon the ſtaff in the army; and, in the year 1761, he was with the army that took Belleiſle.'—In the ſubſequent year, he accompanied the army to Portugal, and returned to England in May. This being at the cloſe of the war, he took a houſe in Golden Square; and found himſelf, in point of fortune, better than nothing by his half pay. Here he commenced his career as a London Surgeon. In February 1767, he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and, in December 1768, was choſen ſurgeon to St. George's hoſpital, on the deceaſe of Mr. Gataker. In 1770, he was appointed ſurgeon-extraordinary to his majeſty. In the year following, he married miſs Home, the daughter of Mr. Home, ſurgeon, in Suffolk-ſtreet, Charing-croſs. In the autumn of 1773, he advertiſed a courſe of lectures, ſurgical, phyſiological, and anatomical, which were continued ſome years, with unequal ſucceſs, at his houſe in Jermyn-ſtreet. In 1783, he took a houſe in Leiceſter-ſquare, and there fitted up a ſpacious room for a muſeum, another for a public medical levee on every Sunday evening, another for a Lyceum for medical diſputation, another for his courſe of lectures, another for diſſection, another for a printing warehouſe and a preſs, and another for vending his medical works. His muſeum was a valuable collection, of a rare and extenſive nature. With reſpect to its arrangement, it begins with the moſt ſimple, or component parts of the human body, and of the ſame parts in other animals, where they differ in ſtructure; ſuch as a muſcle, bone, tendon, ligament, cartilage, &c. It goes on to the more compound parts; as the heart from the human ſubject, and the heart from all thoſe animals from which they could be procured; ſhowing the different variations. The human ſtomach and the ſtomach of other animals, the inteſtines, the liver, ſpleen, kidney, &c. are ſhown in preparation from the human ſubject and a variety of other animals. The bones too of every animal that could be procured are formed into ſkeletons. In the arrangement of undiſſected animals, or parts of animals, Mr. Hunter began with what he called the moſt ſimple animal, a polype, or a leach, for example, and going on to the more compound, ended with man. The deviations from nature, called monſters, are in large numbers. There is alſo a collection of the remains of petrified animals, and, laſtly, a good collection of calculi.

After the death of Mr. Pott, in 1788, Mr. Hunter acquired a conſiderable degree of employment as a ſurgeon: his conſultations were more in faſhion, and his range of practice more extenſive, than thoſe of any other ſurgeon. In 1789, he ſucceeded Mr. Adair in the office of ſurgeon-general and inſpector to the army. But he did not long enjoy the honours he had attained, and the emoluments he had acquired. On Wedneſday, October 16, 1793, he died ſuddenly in the board-room of St. George's hoſpital, in the 64th year of his age, and was interred on the Wedneſday following, in the public vault belonging to St. Martin's in the Fields.

Mr. Hunter's works were, I. The Natural Hiſtory of the human Teeth. 4to. 1771.—II. A Practical Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of the Teeth; intended as a Supplement to the Natural Hiſtory. 4to. 1778.—III. A Treatiſe on the Venereal Diſeaſe. 4to. 1786.—IV. Obſervations on certain Parts of the Animal Oeconomy. 4to. 1787.—Beſide theſe, he wrote ſeveral papers in the different volumes of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, from the year 1772 to 1792. Of theſe, almoſt the whole are on ſubjects of natural hiſtory, the ſtudy of which ſeems to have been his favourite employment. In the cultivation of this part of the field of ſcience, he diſplayed ſuch a talent

for

for experiment, and ſuch patience of inveſtigation, that to his great reputation as a ſurgeon and anatomiſt, he has added that of an induſtrious and philoſophical naturaliſt.

Mr. Hunter left a ſon, who, at the time of his father's death, was in his 20th year, and was then at the univerſity of Cambridge. By his will, he authorized his executors to make an offer of his muſeum to government, on the payment to his family of a ſum of money, greatly below the original coſt; and we underſtand that this offer has been attended to, and that this invaluable muſeum will, in courſe, be preſerved for the uſe of the public.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

'THE heavy charge,' reſpecting Mrs. Macaulay, is given with a religious attachment to *truth*. Mr. Graham attacks *my* candour; the public ſhall judge of *his own*. The memorandum in the MS. *he* has given thus; '12 Nov. 1764, ſent down to Mrs. Macaulay.

(Signed) C. MORTON.'

'With what intention was the *former* part omitted? This is a correct tranſcript:

'Upon examination of this book, Nov. 12, 1764, theſe four laſt leaves were torn out.

C. MORTON.'

'Mem. Nov. 12, ſent down to Mrs. Macaulay.'

'Had the teſtimony of Dr. Morton been as deciſive as it is reſpectable, I ſhould only now have to retract my aſſertion. But the letter is myſterious; for it is only ſaid "that he *rather* thinks the leaves were wanting, when the MS. was ſent to Mrs. M."

'As no memorandums are made in MSS. which are ſent down for the uſe of any perſon, I aſk, why is her *name* at all ſpecified in this MS.? It has been ſaid that the ſtamp of the Britiſh Muſeum being on the laſt page proves that the MS. has been originally received in this ſtate. This decides nothing; for if any one had torn theſe leaves, the ſtamp would have been *renewed* on the laſt remaining one.

'When I diſcovered this ſingular note, I likewiſe received information from a quarter of undoubted authority. I was told that the female hiſtorian had acted thus *more than once*, and, when accuſed, inſolently *confeſſed* it, and was therefore *refuſed further acceſs* to the muſeum. Theſe facts are alſo *well known* to ſeveral gentlemen who attend the reading-room. At preſent, my remoteneſs from the metropolis hinders me from citing names, without permiſſion, which would ſanction this intelligence.

'The circumſtantial evidence of the memorandum, united with theſe facts, confirmed my belief when I publiſhed the anecdote; and now it is publiſhed, I ſtill believe it. But, as my only view is the diſintereſted cauſe of truth, if Mrs. Macaulay can *yet* be exculpated, I ſhall be the firſt to eraſe what I have been the firſt to write.

'The reſpect due to the public, not to the Rev. W. Graham, has claimed this notice. He has employed a virulence of ſtyle, which the good ſenſe of *ſome* has ſoftened into decency; and I wiſh that *a modern Levite* may be taught ſome moderation, from one whom he calls "*a ſon of Levi.*"

I am, &c.

Exeter, Sept. 20, 1794. J. D'ISRAELI.'

Curious PARTICULARS *of the* CUSTOMS *and* MANNERS *of the Engliſh in ancient Times.*

The firſt Volume of a Hiſtory of Great Britain, *on a new Plan, has juſt been publiſhed by Mr.* James Pettit Andrews. *It is deſigned to connect the Hiſtory of this Country, which appears on one Side, with the Chronology of* Europe, *which is given on the oppoſite Page. The Execution of this Plan is judicious and maſterly. It contains likewiſe, in the Notes and Appendixes, many curious Anecdotes of the Times, Lives of the Learned, and Specimens of their Works; beginning with the Invaſion of* Cæſar, *and ending with the Depoſition of* Richard II. *From this Work we have the Pleaſure of extracting the Article of* Manners, *which forms a conſiderable Part of the Appendixes.*

THE cuſtoms of the Anglo-Saxons (and indeed of all the northern nations) have ſomewhat particularly worth notice in them, as far as they relate to matrimony.

A woman unmarried was always ſuppoſed to have a 'mund-bora,' a guardian or owner; the virgin belonged to her father, brother, uncle or neareſt male relation; the widow claimed the ſame protection of her dead huſband's male relatives; the lover was obliged to buy his miſtreſs of her 'mund-bora' by a 'mede' or gift, the amount of which was ſettled by a law, that ſet a higher price on the maid by one-half, than on the relict.

If unadviſedly the wooer wedded the lady without the mund-bora's conſent, her perſon and goods were ſtill the property of her guardian; and an injury offered to her was to be atoned for, not to the ſpouſe but to the mund-bora.

At the wedding * the mund-bora delivered up his ward to the ſpouſe, a friend of whom had previouſly avowed himſelf the guarantee of a proper and ſteady proviſion for the bride in caſe of her huſband's death. At the feaſt which followed, the uſual and large preſents of gold, arms, cloths, houſehold ſtuff, &c. made by the invited relations, formed the portion of the bride, who had beſide from cuſtom immemorial a right to aſk of her mate on the next ſun-riſing after her nuptials a 'morgæn-gife,' or morning's gift, to ſerve as her pin money †. —*Wilk. Leg. Sax. Spelman's Gloſs.*

We know little as to the divorces of the Anglo-Saxons, although they ſometimes appear: but the Welch laws allowed the huſband to put away his wife for behaviour tending toward adultery; while on her part ſhe might on very ſlight accounts ſeparate her concerns from his; it was a ſufficient cauſe if ſhe diſcovered that he had an ill-ſcented breath.—*Leges Wallicæ.*

With reſpect to conjugal authority, our neighbours of Wales allotted deciſively that, if the wife called her huſband opprobrious names, pulled him by the beard, ſquandered away his goods, or laſtly, if he found her in bed with another man, the injured ſpouſe might give her three blows with a ſtick on any part of her except her head. But if he ſhould beat her more ſeverely or for a leſs cauſe, he was liable to pay a conſiderable fine. —*Ibid.*

In the education of their children the Anglo-Saxons only ſought to ren-

* The nuptial benediction was frequently given to the bride while ſtanding under a kind of veil, held over her head by four tall men that her bluſhes might be concealed. To a widow this ceremony was always omitted.—*Muratori.*

† We may eaſily trace here the truſtees to ſettlement; and the giving away the bride ſtill in uſe with us. To explain the morgæn-gife we muſt perhaps look to the cuſtoms of the eaſt.

der them dauntleſs and apt for the two moſt important occupations of their future lives, war and the chaſe *. It was a uſual trial of a child's courage, to place him on the ſloping roof of a building, and if without ſcreaming or terror he held faſt, he was ſtyled 'a ſtout-herce' or brave boy. —*Howel.*

Much more joyous was the ceremony of ſepulture among the Angelo-Saxons than that of marriage. The houſe, in which the body lay till its burial, was a perpetual ſcene of feaſting, ſinging, dancing, and every ſpecies of riot; this was very expenſive to the family of the deceaſed; and in the north it was carried ſo far that the corpſe was forcibly kept unburied by the viſiting friends, until they were certain that they had conſumed all the wealth the deceaſed had left behind him, in games and feſtivity. In vain did the church exert itſelf againſt ſuch enormities. The cuſtom had prevailed during the times of paganiſm, and was much too pleaſant to be abandoned by the half-chriſtians of the early centuries.—*Spelman, &c.*

In private life the Anglo-Saxons were devout to the extreme of credulity; and hoſpitable to drunken extravagance; their manners were rough, but ſocial; when married, each ſide reſpected the nuptial tye, and moſt of the ladies ſuckled their own children.

Their boards were plainly but plentifully ſerved. Large joints of roaſted meat ſeem to have had the preference; ſalted victuals were much in uſe.—*Hen. of Huntingdon.*

At table, the rank of the gueſts was ſtrictly obſerved; and by the laws of Canute, a perſon ſitting above his proper ſtation was to be pelted out of his place by bones, at the diſcretion of the company, without the privilege of taking offence.—*Bath. Leg. Canut.*

The lady (or as the Saxons named her, 'leaf-dien' the bread-giver) ſat, as now, at the upper end of the board and diſtributed the proviſions to her gueſts.

The liquors uſed at genteel tables among the Anglo-Saxons, were wine, ale and ſpiced ale, pigment (a compoſition of wine, ſpice, and honey) morat (honey diluted with mulberry juice) and mead.—*Du Cange's Gloſſ. in Verb. Moratum, &c.*

The dreſs of the Anglo-Saxon gentleman was a looſe cloak which reached down to the ancles; and over that a long robe faſtened over both ſhoulders on the middle of the breaſt, by a claſp or buckle. Theſe cloaks and robes were frequently † lined with rich furs and bordered with gold or embroidery. The ſoldiers and common people wore cloſe coats only reaching to the knee; and ſhort cloaks hanging over the left ſhoulder and buckled on the right. Theſe had ſometimes an edging of gold.

They wore caps that came to a point in front, which were probably made of the ſkins of beaſts.

The women wore a long looſe robe reaching to the ground. On their heads hung a veil which, falling down before, was gathered up at the corners and folded round their necks and over their boſoms. The robe was uſually ornamented with a broad border, coloured or embroidered. Slippers were worn by men and women of faſhion; and the men had a croſſed bandage in lieu of a ſtocking.

The hair of the men was worn long and flowing, and the beard was permitted to grow on the upper lip,

* Aſſer, the biographer of Alfred, mentions with amazement that the king made his youngeſt ſon Ethelward be taught to read, before he made him acquainted with hunting.—*V. Elfredi.*

† Wulſtan, biſhop of Worceſter, was mocked by the biſhop of Conſtance for wearing a mantle lined with the fur of lambs, and adviſed at leaſt, to adorn his cloak with cat ſkins. 'Alas! my brother,' (replied Wulſtan) 'I have often heard of the Lamb of God, but never of his cat.' This piece of wit turned the laugh againſt the German prelate.—*Anglia Sacra.*

'These are not soldiers but monks,' said one of Harold's spies who had watched the Normans, and observed with surprise that they had no mustachos, and bitter were the invectives of the Anglo-Saxons against the conqueror for forcing them to abandon these favourite appendages.—*M. Paris. Vit. Abb.*

Gold chains and bracelets were favourite ornaments of both sexes.—*W. of Malmsb.*

In England every man was a soldier; and the county-meetings were styled 'Wapon-tacks' from the custom of going armed to the assembly and of touching the spear of the magistrate, to show the readiness of each man for action. Slaves were not suffered to carry arms about them; the very gift of a weapon conferred freedom.

On the other hand, the free man never stirred abroad without his spear; and laws were actually made to guard against the damages occasioned by the careless bearer.—*Wilkins.*

In battle, the ceorles who formed the infantry, beside a broad sword, and sometimes a club, bore only a round shield with an offensive pointed weapon in the center. The cavalry, being composed of thanes, huscarles and the richer ceorles who could afford to keep horses, was better provided with defensive armour. The swords of the horsemen were long and broad; and they bore a spear in a kind of rest.—*Strutt's View, &c.*

The character of the Anglo-Saxons as to personal courage varied according to the behaviour of their leaders. Under Egbert, Alfred and his immediate successors they maintained the credit which their German ancestors had gained in battle. Cowed by the unmanly bigotry of Edgar and Ethelred the Unready, they shrunk into the meanest degree of cowardice and treachery; but when headed by Edmund Ironside and Harold II, they fought (although not with success) with the most undaunted bravery.

In the article of marriage very little alteration appears in the era of the Anglo-Normans, from the custom used by their predecessors.

The guardianship of the maiden was strictly maintained. And an old chronicler bitterly complains 'That wardes are bought and solde as commonlye as are beastes' and that 'they are forced to see with another mannes eye and say yea with another mannes tongue,' &c.

The ceremony of putting on the wedding ring seems to have been a Norman addition.

Henry Beauclerc made a law which rendered contracts of marriage, if unwitnessed, void; it restrained matrimony to the seventh degree of consanguinity; and deprived the widow, who should re-marry within a year after her spouse's death, of all advantage from any possessions or wealth which she might inherit from him.

Baptism was celebrated nearly as in the modern times.—*Strutt from Langton and Peckham's Constitutions.*

The funerals of the Anglo-Normans were magnificent. M. Paris tells us that the body of Henry II, was dress in the royal robes, a golden crown on the head, and shoes wrought with gold on the feet. In this manner it was shewn to the people with the face uncovered. The same author describes the pompous ceremonies and dresses used at the interment of each church-dignitary; and has even left a drawing by his own hand to illustrate the subject.—*Strutt.*

Stone coffins and large wooden chests were used to enclose the bodies of the deceased.—*Ibid.*

It was the custom with the Anglo-Norman race to celebrate a solemn dirge and to mourn for the decease of foreign princes.—*Caxton's Additions to the Polychronicon.*

The customs introduced by the Normans in England were in general praise-worthy and gentlemen-like, when compared to those of the Anglo-Saxons. 'Knighthood, which necessarily comprehended a brave and li-

beral heart, a firm demeanor and a graceful performance of manlike exercises, flourished under their protection. The knight, after having served a kind of apprenticeship during seven or eight years as an esquire, bound himself by a solemn oath to be loyal to his king, to protect the virtuous part of the fair sex and to rescue widows and orphans from oppression at the hazard of his life. The tilts and tournaments (which were pompous festivals where the skill and agility of the knight were severely tried) afforded perpetual incentives to excellence in military * science; and the picturesque duty annexed to chivalry of chusing a supreme lady, in defence of whose beauty and virtue her knight was always ready to combat, hid its own absurdity under a veil of elegance.—*St. Palaye sur la Chevalrie.*

Beside the tournament, a diversion allotted only to persons of rank, the favourite sports of the principal Normans, were hunting and hawking; these the † kings, prelates ‡, and noblemen pursued with an incredible eagerness, and without the smallest regard to the labours of the husbandman. 'By these pursuits,' (says John of Salisbury) 'they lose their humanity, and became monsters like the savage animals they chase; shepherds and their flocks are driven from their pastures, that wild beasts may range in them at large; should one of these potent sportsmen approach your dwelling, hasten to bring out every refreshment which you have in your house or which you can beg or borrow of your neighbours, lest you should find the fatal consequence of your neglect; and perhaps be accused of treason.'

'The game of chess and still more the various chances of the dice constituted domestic amusements for the great. That they carried these to excess we may judge from many circumstances. Even the horrors of civil war could not damp their spirit of gaming; for M. Paris complains of the barons, associated to resist the tyranny of John, for spending their time in luxury and playing with dice, when their appearance was wanted in the field. Excessive gaming at sea was restrained by the second of those laws which the united kings of England and France drew up in 1190 for the government of the force fitted out against the Saracens. There it is enacted that knights and clerks shall be restrained to the loss of twenty shillings (nearly what fifteen pounds would be in the eighteenth century) in a day. But that soldiers or sailors, if detected in playing for money, shall be fined at will or whipped or ducked.—*Brompton. Benedict. Abbas.*

Theatrical entertainments were not wholly unknown. The miracles of saints and the sufferings of martyrs were the subjects of dramatic representations in London as Fitz Stephens writes; and we find by M. Paris, that Geoffrey, an abbot of St. Albans, was the author of a play of St. Katharine; and that he borrowed from

* The very great hazard of this warlike sport occasioned it to be forbidden by decrees of several popes, says Lambarde; those who fell at tiltings were also (as Camden writes) denied Christian burial. The severe prohibitions seem to have related more to private exercises than to royal tournaments, which gained much ground under Richard Cœurde Lion and his successor. 'These danger being sufficiently provided for,' (says Lambarde) 'and the men waxing expert.' Yet not so 'expert' but that many fatal accidents occurred; as witness an earl of Pembroke, an earl of Moray, a duke of Albany, and a king of France who (with many more) owed their death to tilting.

† Their predecessors of the Saxon race had set them the example. Edward the Confessor (as ought to have been told in its place) received yearly, from the manor of Barton near Gloucester, three thousand loaves of bread for the maintenance of his dogs.—*Atkyns.*

‡ Peter de Blois records the exploits of Walter bishop of Rochester; who, at the age of eighty years, followed the chase with such perseverance and spirit that he totally neglected the care of his diocese.

the

the Sacriſtan, the holy veſtments of the abbey to adorn the actors.

The more groſs amuſements of the Norman nobility in the pantomime ſtyle have been mentioned in a former note from John of Saliſbury, who though a ſevere, was a tolerably candid critic on the times he lived in.

The common people were not without their diverſions. Bull-baiting, cock fighting and horſe-racing were known to the men of London: the ſports on the Thames, the ſkaiting, and the various exerciſes and entertainments of the twelfth century are accurately and even elegantly painted by Fitz Stephens in his deſcription of London.

The Normans were ſober and rather delicate at their meals when they firſt invaded England. It was not long however before they equalled their predeceſſors in feaſting and even added coſtly epicuriſm to brutal * gluttony.—Yet two meals each day ſupplied the place of the Anglo-Saxon four, and Robert de Mellent, prime miniſter and favourite of Henry Beauclerc, ſtrove hard to reduce theſe two to one.—*W. Malmſb.*

Among the moſt deſpotic barons there was a kind of groſs hoſpitality and indiſcriminate charity †, which cauſed their tyranny to be overlooked.

The dinner was held at nine in the morning, the ſupper at five in the afternoon. Beſide the common meats many diſhes were uſed with the compoſition of which we are not now acquainted. As to liquors they had ſeveral kinds compounded of honey, of ſpices, and of mulberry juice. Such as hypocras, pigment, claret and morat, beſide wine, cyder, perry and ale.

Various kinds of bread were in uſe. The 'panis piperatus,' was a ſort of gingerbread. Waſtel cakes and ſimnel cakes, as they were part of the royal allowance of the K. of Scots when in England, were probably made of the fineſt meal.—*Rym. Fœd.*

There was great inconſiſtency in the general and national character of the Anglo-Normans. They were at the ſame time acutely diſcerning and groſsly ‡ credulous; honourably brave and atrociouſly cruel; reſpectful to the fair ſex even to adoration, yet brutally licentious in their conduct to individuals; effeminate in their dreſs and manners, yet patient of almoſt intolerable fatigues.

During more than an hundred years, the Normans in England ſhaved their faces. W. de Percy (who accompanied duke Robert in 1096 to Paleſtine) was ſtyled, on account of ſingularity as to this point, 'William Algernons,' or 'William with the || whiſkers.'

The dreſs of the Anglo-Norman was, in the eleventh century, ſimple

* 'Their baggage horſes are loaded,' (ſays Peter de Blois, deſcribing the barons and knights going to war) 'not with weapons but wine, nor with lances but luncheons, not with battle-axes but bottles, not with ſpears but ſpits.' 'All the ſorts of beaſts that roam on the land, of fiſhes that ſwim in the water, and of birds that fly in the air,' were collected for the table of William de Longchamp, biſhop of Ely, ſays one of his contemporaries.—*Benedict. Abbas.*

† As for inſtance that of ſir William Fitz William who lived about 1137, and who inſcribed on a croſs in Sprotborough High-ſtreet the following verſes which (together with the croſs) were deſtroyed in 1520.

'Whoſo is hongry, and liſt well eate
Let him come to Sprotborough to his meate,
And for a night, and for a daye,
His horſe ſhall have both corne and haye.
An no man ſhall aſke hym where he goith awaye.'—*MS. apud Collins.*

‡ As witneſs their entire belief in aſtrology.

|| From this old French name ſprings 'Algernon,' a favourite appellation in the noble family of Percy.—*Coll: Peerage.*

if not elegant. The great wore a long and close gown, which reached down to their heels and had its bottom frequently embroidered with gold. Over this hung an equally long cloak which was generally buckled over the breast. When riding or walking abroad, a hood always hung behind the cloak. The close gown was put over the head like a shirt and fastened round the waist by a girdle, which was often embroidered and set with precious stones.—*Strutt from Ant. Paintings.*

They wore breeches and stockings made of fine cloth and sometimes very costly. The absurd long toed shoes came in with William Rufus. The queen and the women of fashion wore loose gowns trailing on the ground and girt round the waist. The married women had an additional robe over the gown, hanging down before not unlike a sacerdotal garment. To the girdle a large purse or pouch was suspended. The men wore their hair long, except sometimes when suddenly wrought on by fanaticism.

In the approaching centuries we shall find strange variations from this simplicity of habit. The crusades indeed seem to have introduced to northern Europe, among other vices, luxury and effeminacy in dress to a degree which a modern man of fashion would blush to imitate *.

The umbrella was in use as early as the reign of king Stephen.—*Strutt.*

The tournament shone in its highest lustre during the thirteenth and fourteenth ages. The rival monarchs of England and France had found the energetic valour of their nobility depended greatly on the prevalence of this institution; and it was proportionably encouraged. The effect was considerable in a military light; but its expences were vast, its dangers great; and, when the ladies began to take delight in pursuing exhibitions of this kind from one end of the realm to the other †, it certainly neither increased the delicacy or the humanity of the sex. The chase and in general the sports of the field were still eagerly followed by those of the highest ranks.—*Froissart, passim.*

The amusements of the people continued nearly the same as in the ages immediately preceding. They received indeed from a proclamation of Edward II in 1363, an admonition that it would redound much more to their credit if they would 'like those of former times' apply themselves to archery, instead of spending their time in throwing stones, wood or iron; in playing at hand-ball, foot-ball, or club-ball; in bull-baiting and cock-fighting, or in more useless and dishonest games.'—*Rym. Fœd.*

* Consult the curious engravings in Mr. Strutt's Regal Antiquities. Holingshed asserts that sir John Arundel, when setting out on an expedition against the court of France at a period little later than this, had 'fifty-two new suits of apparel of cloth of gold or tissue.'

† The picture of the fair rantipoles of England, at a period when the pride of glory and conquest had exhilarated the hearts of both sexes almost to insanity, as drawn by a contemporary is too curious to be omitted in this place. 'These tournaments are attended by many ladies of the first rank and greatest beauty, but not always of the most untainted reputation. These ladies are dressed in party-coloured tunics, one half being of one colour, and the other half of another. Their lirripes (or tippets) are very short, their caps remarkably little and wrapt about their heads with cords; their girdles are ornamented with gold and silver; and they wear short swords (like daggers) before them, which hang across their stomach. They are mounted on the finest horses, with the richest furniture; thus equipped, they ride from place to place in quest of tournaments; by which they dissipate their fortunes and not unfrequently ruin their reputation.'—*Knighton apud Henry.*

Soon we must prepare to see these lovely, thoughtless beings lying in trenches; and partaking the dangers and the joys of the heroes of invasion and rapine.

Mysteries

Myſteries and miracles, a kind of poetic dialogues, repreſenting detached ſcenes from the Old and New Teſtament, were the only dramatic amuſements; and were acted ſometimes by monks, ſometimes by commercial companies. There were indeed alſo moralities, ſerious reflections on human life in verſe, equally heavy and ill-judged.—*Warton.*

As to tragedy and comedy; when ſpoken of, a narration, not a drama ſeems to have been intended.—*Prologue to Chaucer's Monk's Tale.*

That there were entertainments of a more diverting turn we may conjecture from the numbers of minſtrels and jongleurs which were entertained and encouraged by the great. An old chronicle cited by St. Palaye introduces ſome of that mirth-loving crew dancing on ropes, others riding on oxen dreſſed in ſcarlet, and ſounding their horns on the approach of every diſh, at the nuptials of prince Robert of France, at Compiegne in 1237. John of Saliſbury too recounts ſome of their feats of buffoonery; but none ſeem to have been connected like a farce or pantomime *.

The paſſion for feaſting increaſed ſo much in England in the fourteenth century that a ſevere law was enacted by Edward III, to reſtrain certain ranks to proportionable banquets. Yet the example which he gave edified not; for, when his ſon Lionel of Clarence married Violentia of Milan, there were thirty courſes, and the fragments of the table fed 1000 perſons.

'The wines' muſt not be forgotten when we treat of our anceſtors luxuries. This expreſſion denoted a collation taken by the great and elegant juſt before they went to bed, and conſiſted of ſpiced liquors and delicate cakes.

The varied and ridiculous modes of dreſs which the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries produced were very juſtly the ſubject of bitter reprehenſion from the ſatiriſts of the time. Sometimes too the higher powers attempted to regulate † them but never with ſucceſs.

The dreſs of the ladies of faſhion has been deſcribed in a foregoing note; and the following portrait, drawn by a maſterly pencil, does at leaſt, equal juſtice to the fine gentlemen of the age.

'What could exhibit a more fantaſtical appearance than an Engliſh beau of the fourteenth century? He wore long pointed ſhoes faſtened to his knees by gold or ſilver chains; hoſe of one colour on the one leg, and of another colour on the other; ſhort breeches which did not reach to the middle of his thighs and diſcloſed the ſhape of all the parts included in them; a coat, the one half white, the other half black or blue; a long beard; a ſilk hood buttoned under his chin, embroidered with groteſque figures of animals, dancing men, &c. and ſometimes ornamented with gold and precious ſtones.' This dreſs was the top

* In the ſixth of Edward III, we find a company of men, ſtyled vagrants, and ordered to be whipped through London for repreſenting ſcandalous things in alehouſes, &c. Theſe are ſuppoſed to have been 'Mummers,' a ſpecies of performers in the loweſt and moſt ſcurrilous dramatic line. They always went maſqued; were lawleſs and profligate; and were at length proſcribed by a ſtatute in the third of Henry VIII. —*Preface to Dodſley's Old Plays.*

† The long-toed ſhoes in particular were during three centuries in vain aſſaulted by bulls from the popes, decrees of councils and declamations of the clergy.

Theſe ſtrange favourites were called 'Crackowes,' and were ſometimes cut at the top in imitation of a church window. Chaucer's ſpruce pariſh-clerk Abſalom.

'Had Paulis windowes corven on his ſhoſe.' *Henry.*

Gloves were a coſtly article of dreſs to our anceſtors. They were frequently adorned with precious ſtones.—*Rot. Pip. apud Warton.*

of

of the mode in the reign of Edward III *.

We may in ſome meaſure gueſs at the expences which the dreſs of the times muſt occaſion to a man of the world, by the account which Adam Merimult gives of ſir John Arundell's wardrobe, when ſetting out, in 1380, on a warlike expedition againſt France. He had 'two and fiftie new ſuits of apparell of cloth of gold or tiſſue.'

To this let us add the contemporary bard's deſcription of the manner in which a perſon of rank ſhould be accommodated at his hours of repoſe †.

Your blankettes ſhall be of fuſtyane
Your ſhetes ſhall be of clothes of rayne
Your hede-ſhete ſhall be of pery pyghte
Wyth dyamonds ſette & rubys bryghte.

Whan you are laid in bed ſo ſofte
A cage of golde ſhall hange of lofte
Wythe longe peper ſayre brenynge
And cloves that be ſwete ſmellynge.
Squire of Low Degree, apud Warton.

Medical knowledge, at the commencement of the fourteenth century, ſeems to have been at a very low ebb. Gilbert Engliſh (the oldeſt writer on theſe ſubjects in our language) is ſaid by Dr. Friend to have borrowed all his ſcience from the Arabian writers. John de Gaddeſden, whoſe 'Medical Roſe' is a compendium of the whole practice of phyſic uſed in England, in his time, and who has been conſulted by princes, and commended by Geoffry Chaucer, appears by ſome of his recipies, to be extremely ignorant and ſuperſtitious. He cured, he ſays, a ſon of Edward II of the ſmallpox, by wrapping him up in ſcarlet cloth, and hanging ſcarlet curtains round his bed! As a remedy for the epilepſy, this fantaſtical phyſician orders the patient to be carried to church, to hear the maſs during the faſt, 'quatuor temporum,' and afterward to wear round his neck a verſe of the days goſpel written on a ſcroll by the prieſt. Yet John de Gaddeſden in his Roſa Anglica points out the way of rendering ſalt water freſh by diſtillation, a diſcovery ſuppoſed to be of much more modern date.—*Friend. Aikin.*

The following extract from a treatiſe compoſed by Guido de Cauliaco in 1363, will, as Dr. Henry juſtly obſerves, clearly point out the ſtate of chirurgery at the æra of which we treat.

'There are five ſects of ſurgeons. The firſt follow Roger, Roland, &c. and apply pultices to all wounds and abſceſſes. The ſecond follow Brumis and Theodoric, and uſe wine only. The third follow Saliceto and Langfranc, and treat wounds with ointments and ſoft plaiſters. The fourth are chiefly Germans, who attend the

* When the perſonage above-deſcribed was mounted, he was not gallantly equipped unleſs the horſe's bridle or ſome part of the furniture were ſtuck full of ſmall bells. Vincent of Beauvais, an early writer, blames the Knights Templars for having to their horſe-furniture 'Campanulas infixas, magnum emittentes ſonitum.' Wickliffe cenſures the prieſts of his day for their 'fair hors, and jolly and gaie ſadeles and brideles which ring by the way.' Then Chaucer's monk,

'——When he rod, men might his bridele here,
Gingeling in a whiſtling wind as clere
And eke as lowde as does the chapell bell,' &c.

And the great Cœur de Lion as we are told in the Romance which bears his name,

'Hye crouper hengè full of belles.' *Warton's Hiſt. of Poetry.*

† Mr. Strutt remarks that even royal and noble perſonages appear in illuminations, &c. to have been totally naked in their beds, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and that this appears ſtrange as in the Saxon, Daniſh, and early Anglo-Norman æras there appears to have been cloſe garments like ſhirts on every figure lying in bed.—*Cuſtoms, &c.*

armies and promiscuously use charms, potions, oil and wool. The fifth are old women and ignorant people who in all cases have recourse to the saints.' —*G. de Cauliaco apud Friend.*

The frequency of famines which prevailed in the earlier centuries affords too clear a proof of the slow progress of agricultural improvement. The wretched tenure by which the inferior farmers held their lands (a tenure which obliged them to discontinue that labour which they were employing in their own fields, and to transfer it to that of their lords, whether prelates or barons) was an effectual bar to every amendment of soil.

If gardening throve better, it was because it flourished immediately by the protection of the great. Almost every large castle or monastery had its kitchen-garden, physic-garden, orchard, and frequently its vineyard. And, strange as it may appear to those who consider how much less is now brought about, although with much greater advantages, yet it does appear from evidence we cannot well doubt, that at the period we now treat of, there was wine made in England in great quantity, and of a quality too which at least is never mentioned to its disparagement.

An Account of the TELEGRAPHE, *or new and curious Method by which the French communicate Intelligence from the greatest Distances, in a very short Space of Time.*

WITHOUT troubling our readers with any fanciful conjectures respecting the time when the possibility of such a contrivance was suggested, we shall first state the report concerning it, delivered by M. Barrere to the French Convention, Aug 15, 1794, and then give a description of the method itself.

'The new-invented telegraphic language of signals is a contrivance of art to transmit thoughts, in a peculiar language, from one distance to another, by means of machines, which are placed at different distances of between four and five leagues from one another, so that the expression reaches a very distant place in the space of a few minutes. Last year an experiment of this invention was tried in the presence of several commissioners of the convention. From the favourable report which the latter made of the efficacy of the contrivance, the committee of public welfare tried every effort to establish, by this means, a correspondence between Paris and the frontier places, beginning with Lisle. Almost a whole twelvemonth has been spent in collecting the necessary instruments for the machines, and to teach the people employed how to use them. At present, the telegraphic language of signals is prepared in such a manner, that a correspondence may be conducted with Lisle upon every subject, and that every thing, nay even proper names, may be expressed; an answer may be received, and the correspondence thus be renewed several times a day. The machines are the invention of citizen Chappe, and were constructed before his own eyes; he directs their establishment at Paris. They have the advantage of resisting the movements of the atmosphere and the inclemencies of the seasons. The only thing which can interrupt their effect is, if the weather is so very bad and turbid that the objects and signals cannot be distinguished. By this invention the remoteness of distances almost disappear; and all the communications of correspondence are effected with the rapidity of the twinkling of an eye. The operations of government can be very much facilitated by this contrivance, and the unity of the republic can be the more consolidated by the speedy communication with all its parts. The greatest

advantage which can be derived from this correſpondence is, that, if one chooſe, its object ſhall be known only to certain individuals, or to one individual alone, at two oppoſite diſtances; ſo that the committee of public welfare may now correſpond with the repreſentative of the people at Liſle without any other perſons getting acquainted with the object of the correſpondence. It follows hence, that were Liſle even beſieged, we ſhould know every thing at Paris that would happen in that place, and could ſend thither the decrees of the convention without the enemy's being able to diſcover or to prevent it.'

The following is a deſcription of the Telegraphe:

The machine is extremely ſimple. At the firſt ſtation, which is on the roof of the palace of the Louvre, at Paris, M. Chappe, the inventor, receives in writing, from the committee of public welfare, the words to be ſent to Liſle. An upright poſt is erected on the Louvre, at the top of which are two tranſverſe arms. Theſe arms are moveable in all directions, by a ſingle piece of mechaniſm, and with inconceivable rapidity. He has invented a number of poſitions for theſe arms, which ſtand as ſigns for the letters of the alphabet, and theſe for the greater celerity and ſimplicity he has reduced in number as much as poſſible. The grammarian will eaſily conceive that ſixteen ſigns may amply ſupply all the letters of the alphabet, ſince ſome letters may be omitted not only without detriment, but with advantage. Theſe ſigns, as they are arbitrary, may be changed every week, ſo that the ſign of B for this day may be the ſign of M to-morrow; and it is only neceſſary that the perſons at the extremities ſhould know the key. The intermediate operators are only inſtructed generally in theſe ſixteen ſignals, which are ſo diſtinct, ſo marked, ſo different the one from the other, that they are eaſily remembered. The conſtruction of the machine is ſuch, that each ſignal is uniformly given in preciſely the ſame manner at all times: it does not depend on the operator's manual ſkill, and the poſition of the arm can never, for any one ſignal, be a degree higher or a degree lower, its movement being regulated mechanically. Unleſs the machine be out of order, the ſignals muſt be always the ſame.

M. Chappe having received at the Louvre the ſentence he is to convey, gives a known ſignal to the ſecond ſtation, which is Mont Martre, to prepare. At each ſtation there is a watch tower, where teleſcopes are fixed, and the perſon on watch gives the ſignal of preparation which he has received, and this is communicated ſucceſſively through all the line, which brings them all into a ſtate of readineſs. The perſon at Mont Martre then receives, letter by letter, the ſentence from the Louvre; which he forthwith repeats with his own machine; and this is again repeated from the next height, with inconceivable rapidity, to the final ſtation at Liſle.

The aſſiſtants have been acquiring the practice for a twelvemonth, and are now ſo adroit, that the movements of the machine are made, and the characters conveyed as ſpeedily as the moſt ingenious perſons, unfortunately deprived of hearing or ſpeech, converſe by ſigns. It is obvious that no uſe can be made of this invention but by day, and in fair weather; but the value of it will eaſily be eſtimated, when it is conſidered that not only ſignals, but words and ſentences, may be conveyed at the rate of 100 miles in an hour.

Pre-

PROCEEDINGS *of the Fourth* SESSION *of the Seventeenth Parliament of* Great Britain, *concluded from Page* 216.

ON Friday, May 30, in the houſe of lords, the duke of Bedford roſe, to move certain reſolutions reſpecting the war. He endeavoured to impreſs on the houſe the idea of the impoſſibility of obtaining any one of the objects for which we were at war, without a total change of meaſures. The more forcibly to evince this, he would read certain reſolutions which he had prepared. [Theſe reſolutions were fourteen in number, and contained the ſeveral ſtate papers which have appeared during the preſent war, and for a ſhort period previous to its commencement.] The laſt of theſe reſolutions expreſſed the opinion of the houſe, 'That it was the duty of miniſters to recommend to his majeſty to point out ſome ſpecific object of the preſent war; and to declare, in the ſtrongeſt terms, his determination not to interfere in the internal government of France.'

Among a variety of obſervations, which had been repeated in former debates, his grace took notice of the aſſertion, that the war was a general cauſe. He would look round Europe, he ſaid, and ſee whether it were thought ſo by other ſtates. Ruſſia, with many profeſſions, had not thought it a cauſe worth ſubſcribing to. Denmark and Sweden, ſo far from viewing the war as the general cauſe of all civilized nations, had armed to preſerve their neutrality. Genoa and Switzerland had alſo declared for a neutrality. Poland was unable to take part in it. Spain and Portugal had done nothing, and Holland appeared tired of it. Pruſſia had withdrawn from it, and her troops were only to be obtained by money; ſo that it was apparent, that a very great part of Europe did not conſider this calamitous war as a general cauſe.—His grace concluded his ſpeech by moving the laſt reſolution.

Lords Auckland, Darnley, and Fitzwilliam ſpoke againſt the motion. The latter expatiated on the enormities committed by the French government, and on the inſults and injuries which this country had received from France, before we were provoked to hoſtilities; and he declared, that if he were to arraign miniſters, it would be for their tardineſs to oppoſe the innovating principles of the French, by which they hoped to overturn every government in Europe, and, in ſome inſtances, had nearly ſucceeded. He hoped that miniſters would not adviſe his majeſty not to interfere in the internal government of France. If they did, he ſhould withdraw from them his feeble ſupport. He moſt ſeriouſly hoped, that by our exertions we might be enabled to re-eſtabliſh monarchy in France; and though he wiſhed for the re-eſtabliſhment of monarchy in that country, he would not have it underſtood that he was an enemy to republics; for he moſt heartily admired the illuſtrious republic on the other ſide of the Atlantic, and was one of the warmeſt admirers of the revolution in America.

Lord Lauderdale, the duke of Grafton, and lord Albemarle ſpoke for the original queſtion. Lord Grenville ſpoke againſt it; and lord Auckland having moved an adjournment, it was carried by 113 to 13.

On the ſame day, this ſubject was brought into the houſe of commons by Mr. Fox, who ſaid, that he thought it his duty to come forward, and to warn the houſe of the very critical ſituation into which miniſters had brought the country, with reſpect to the preſent unfortunate war. This war, taken in its leaſt unjuſtifiable point of view, namely, the principle on which miniſters affected to ſet out with, that of the defence and preſervation of our allies, he could never bring himſelf to approve of, as he was well convinced every thing we could reaſonably expect might have been brought about by negociation; but how much more muſt he diſapprove, nay dread and reprobate it, when the principles on which it was now obviouſly carried on were different, and its objects entirely changed; for now he could not but perceive that it was on a principle of internal interference in the concerns of France, and with a view to the deſtruction of its preſent government. In endeavouring to ſubſtantiate theſe poſitions, he went into a long detail reſpecting the origin of the war, the alliances we had formed on account of it, the operations of the war ſince its commencement, the ſucceſſes and defeats of the allied powers, &c. From all theſe, he pronounced, that the objects which miniſters ſeemed to propoſe to themſelves were abſolutely unattainable, and that nothing ſhort of the ruin of the country was to be apprehended if the preſent ſyſtem was perſiſted in.—He then

moved a ſtring of reſolutions expreſſive of theſe ſentiments, and praying his majeſty to order ſuch ſteps to be taken, as might effect a ſpeedy pacification.

Mr. Jenkinſon inſiſted, that the real objects of the war had been repeatedly and ſufficiently ſtated. They were indemnity for the paſt, as far as could be compaſſed, and ſecurity for the future; and theſe were objects on which no cavil could ariſe. With reſpect to what had been ſaid of the injuſtice of one country interfering in the internal concerns of another, he contended, that, in a ſtate of war, it was juſtifiable to take all means, and interfere in every thing which could tend to promote the ſucceſſes of that war, or to attain the ends for which it had been undertaken. Much as had been ſaid of the Quixotiſm and abſurdity of thinking to overthrow the preſent government of France, he contended that it was practicable, and that there was every reaſon to expect it. The preſent government was odious to the great body of the people: it was a club government all over the kingdom, ſupported by the influence of terror: the ſource and attractive centre of all theſe clubs was the jacobin club at Paris, which, when cut off, the diſſolution of the whole ſyſtem would inevitably follow.

Mr. Sheridan obſerved, that the hon. gentleman had now, for the firſt time, ſtated, in a manly way, the object of the war, which was to deſtroy the jacobin government of France. How far this was practicable, the events of the campaign would ſhew. If this was the object, the queſtion was at once fairly at iſſue. The object, it was now ſtated, for which we were to expend our blood and treaſure, was no other than the capture of Paris. But what were the means by which they were to be effected? Of our ally, the king of Pruſſia, we could only ſay, that though our money certainly arrived in due time, his troops were not equally punctual; and, with reſpect to the Imperial loan, he had no doubt that the next year would convert it into a ſubſidy.—In the courſe of his ſpeech, Mr. Sheridan obſerved, that the plots and conſpiracies which had been ſo pompouſly ſtated in the reports of the ſecret committees, exiſted only in the foul imaginations of miniſters. This produced a ſevere retort from the chancellor of the exchequer, for which he was called to order by Mr. Huſſey; and the ſpeaker interfering, he apologized to the chair and to the houſe; and, in the courſe of his ſpeech, he obſerved, that if, in conſequence of examining the ſubject further, it ſhould appear, that there did exiſt a conſpiracy in Great Britain, and that that conſpiracy had been fomented and ſupported by the jacobin party in France, it muſt follow, that this is not a war in ſupport of any precarious or fluctuating ſyſtem of policy, or of any uncertain balance of power, for any commercial advantage, or any colonial or territorial aggrandiſement; but for the future independence, proſperity, and peace of Great Britain, and of the whole European continent, which had been menaced by a tyrannical anarchy, without whoſe deſtruction civil ſociety could not exiſt in ſecurity. But we are told, continued Mr. Pitt, that the objects of the war are impracticable; and the right hon. gentleman has been pleaſed to aſſume, that it is the intention of miniſters to attempt to conquer France; but we diſclaim any ſuch deſign: it is not our deſign to conquer, but to ſave her—to ſave her from the ruin and diſgrace in which ſhe has plunged herſelf, and to reſtore her to the rank ſhe once held in the number of civilized nations. The right hon. gentleman has obſerved, that notwithſtanding the efforts of two campaigns, the government of that country is as ſtrong as ever; and that, whether cemented by terror or any other means, ſtill if it is of ſufficient ſtability to withſtand our exertions for its ſubjugation, it would be our wiſeſt way to terminate the conteſt by negociation. But in one point of view, it is expedient to conſider the principles on which this government is founded; as from the conſideration of that, it will appear, whether this be not a conteſt againſt a tyranny which has abuſed the ſacred name of freedom, to anſwer the purpoſes of its ambitious abettors, and which, by the threats of deſtruction, keeps an unhappy people in unwilling obedience. The right hon. gentleman has deprecated the idea of deſtroying before we have prepared another edifice in lieu of that which we have pulled down; but this argument only poſſeſſes an appearance of validity, from being puſhed to the very extreme of abſtract politics; for we may venture to aſſert, without the hazard of contradiction, that no ſcheme of government which can be ſubſtituted in lieu of the preſent one of France, can be ſo pernicious to Great Britain and to Europe in general; and it is not by inſtituting a compariſon between various forms of civil policy, under all of which ſome regard has always been paid to the natural dictates of juſtice and humanity, and

and an anarchy which perverts rulers who were appointed for the protection of the many into inſtruments for the deſtruction of the whole, that the right hon. gentleman can hope to ſucceed in convincing us of the propriety of attempting a pacification, eſpecially when theſe men have declared they will conclude no peace with any of the crowned heads of Europe. As to the importance of the Weſt India iſlands to this country, as conſtituting a proper baſis of a negociation, he could only ſay, that he had much rather let them be for ever loſt to this country, than that jacobin principles ſhould remain unſubdued, as on their extermination it muſt depend, not whether you ſhall poſſeſs the Weſt India iſlands, but the iſland of Great Britain itſelf! though it muſt be remarked, that our having obtained poſſeſſion of them, will furniſh ample reſources to this nation in the hour of exigency; and the diſtreſs which their loſs muſt occaſion in France may have a conſiderable tendency in awakening that infatuated people to a ſenſe of the miſeries of their condition, and the wickedneſs of their rulers. As to the propriety of our ſpecifically declaring how far we intend to interfere in the government of that kingdom, and what particular claſs of its natives we mean to ſupport, it need only be obſerved, that the extent of our interference muſt be limited by the events of the war.

On a diviſion, Mr. Fox's motion was rejected by 208 to 55.

On Friday, June 13, lord Grenville roſe, in purſuance of notice he had given, to move the thanks of the houſe to earl Howe, together with all the officers and men engaged in the late victory over the French fleet. His lordſhip ſaid, it was unneceſſary to enter into a detail of facts on this ſubject, to enlarge on it by obſervations, or to dwell on the illuſtrious character under whoſe command this glorious victory was gained: he ſhould, for the preſent, be content with ſaying, that for prudence and wiſdom of deſign, ſkill and courage in execution, and finally, to the glory of the Britiſh character, it was an action which had never been ſurpaſſed even in the hiſtory of the Britiſh navy. He therefore moved, 'That the thanks of that houſe be tranſmitted to admiral earl Howe and the other admirals in that engagement, with all their names, together with the officers, &c.' Then followed an acknowledgement to all the men who were in the action. The thanks to all the officers to be tranſmitted by lord Howe himſelf, and the thanks to his lordſhip himſelf, to be tranſmitted by the lord chancellor.

Theſe motions being read, the duke of Grafton, the duke of Bedford, lord Lauderdale, lord Sydney, and the duke of Clarence, ſucceſſively roſe, and ſpoke in high terms of panegyric of the noble earl. After this, the queſtions were put, and paſſed *nemine diſſentiente*.

On Monday, June 16, a ſimilar vote of thanks paſſed the houſe of commons. It was alſo voted that a monument ſhould be erected in Weſtminſter-abbey, to the memory of captain Montagu.

On Tueſday, June 17, Lord Grenville moved three reſolutions; firſt, to thank admiral lord Hood for his ſervices in the expedition to Corſica; ſecond, to paſs a like vote of thanks to the officers, ſailors, marines, and ſoldiers, ſerving in that expedition; and, thirdly, that the chancellor tranſmit the ſame.—Theſe reſolutions were objected to by lord Lauderdale, lord Derby, and the duke of Bedford, not on account of the perſonal character and conduct of the noble admiral, but on the general principles of oppoſition to the war; and lord Derby moved the previous queſtion Lord Grenville, lord Hawkeſbury, and the lord chancellor anſwered the objections. The previous queſtion was negatived by 31 to 5; and then the vote of thanks was put and carried. On this occaſion was entered the following

PROTEST.

Diſſentient,

1. Becauſe it has not been the practice of this houſe to vote thanks to officers commanding his majeſty's forces by ſea or land, except on occaſions where they have eminently advanced the honour and promoted the intereſts of their country, by the moſt important and acknowledged ſervices.

2. Becauſe by voting the thanks of this houſe, except in ſuch inſtances, we diminiſh the value of the moſt honourable reward we have it in our power to confer, and leſſen one of the beſt incitements to future ſervice.

3. Becauſe the reduction of Baſtia does not in itſelf appear to us to be ſuch a ſervice as calls upon this houſe for any extraordinary mark of approbation or applauſe.

4. Becauſe whatever the merit of that ſervice may be, the other admirals of the fleet, and the commanding officers of his majeſty's land forces, muſt have had their ſhare in it; and to refuſe thanking them,

as

as had been uſual on ſimilar occaſions, appears to us to juſtify an opinion that the vote of thanks to lord Hood originated from ſome motive of a private and perſonal nature, which it is improper for this houſe to countenance.

5. Becauſe even miniſters themſelves do not ſeem, in the firſt inſtance, to have conſidered that ſervice as entitled to ſuch a mark of approbation; for though accounts had been received of the reduction of Baſtia previous to thoſe of the victory obtained by the fleet under the command of earl Howe, no intention was announced of moving a vote of thanks to lord Hood, till this houſe had paid the juſt tribute of gratitude and honour for that moſt important and ſplendid victory.

BEDFORD, DERBY,
ALBEMARLE, THANET.
LAUDERDALE,

The ſame day, in the houſe of commons, ſir Watkin Lewes moved for leave to bring in a bill to raiſe a militia for the defence of the city of London, which was granted; and the bill was read a firſt time.

On Friday, June 20, this bill having gone through the committee, Mr. Sheridan objected to it as a very uſeleſs innovation, becauſe the force for the defence of the city was already ſufficient for that purpoſe.

Sir James Sanderſon ſaid a few words in favour of the bill, after which the houſe divided, for the bill 70; againſt it 12.

The ſame day, the chancellor of the exchequer, called the attention of the houſe to the conduct of the gentlemen who had been appointed to the very laborious office of managers in the impeachment againſt Mr. Haſtings: he ſpoke in very high terms of the induſtry and abilities they had diſplayed, and concluded with moving the thanks of the houſe to them.

Mr. Dundas ſeconded the motion.

Mr. Sumner thought the conduct of the managers, particularly the gentleman who was ſuppoſed to lead them, had not been ſuch as to entitle them to any degree of praiſe; he dwelt particularly upon the harſh terms uſed by Mr. Burke during the trial; and concluded with moving the previous queſtion.

Mr. Windham, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Anſtruther, defended Mr. Burke.

Mr. Law thought the managers were not entitled to the thanks of the houſe.

Upon a diviſion there appeared, for the previous queſtion 21; againſt it 55.

The houſe then divided upon the motion of thanks: for the managers 50; againſt them 21.

The ſpeaker then communicated the thanks of the houſe to the managers in a very elegant ſpeech; Mr. Pitt moved that the ſpeaker's ſpeech be printed; and Mr. Burke, in the name of the managers, returned thanks to the houſe.

After this, Mr. Dundas, without preface, moved the thanks of the houſe to lord Hood.

Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Fox oppoſed the motion, upon the ſame grounds on which it was oppoſed in the houſe of lords.

After a debate of conſiderable length, and ſeveral amendments propoſed by Mr. Sheridan, (all of which were negatived) the original motion was carried.

The London militia bill was read a third time and paſſed.

On Monday, July 7, in the houſe of lords, lord Amherſt moved, that the further conſideration of the trial of Warren Haſtings, ſhould be poſtponed to the ſecond Tueſday in the next ſeſſion of parliament, which being put, was carried.

Lord Amherſt moved, that the houſe ſhould adjourn to Friday next: to this lord Lauderdale moved an amendment, that they ſhould adjourn to Thurſday.

The duke of Norfolk ſaid, that affairs on the continent were in ſuch a ſituation, that the moſt ſerious deliberation of Parliament was required; and therefore it was neceſſary that ſome efficient meaſure ſhould be taken. His idea was, that the lords ſhould be ſummoned for Friday; and if it was agreeable to the orders of the houſe, he ſhould make a motion accordingly.

The lord chancellor ſaid, that the motion for adjournment ſhould be firſt diſpoſed of:—that preceded all other buſineſs.

Lord Lauderdale hoped that the noble lord would withdraw his motion of adjournment, and let the other take precedence.

The duke of Norfolk intimated, that one great power from whom we had a right to expect every aſſiſtance by treaty, and from pay, had declined that aſſiſtance, and that another great power meant to withdraw its forces from Flanders. In this perilous ſituation, unleſs ſome very good news arrived before Friday, he meant to move an addreſs to his majeſty, not to prorogue the preſent parliament, and that the houſe ſhould be ſummoned.

The chancellor ſaid, no motion could be put on this, unleſs the queſtion of adjournment was withdrawn.

Lord

Lord Lauderdale again preſſed the withdrawing of the original motion, that the houſe might be ſummoned; but this not meeting the approbation of the houſe, their lordſhips adjourned to Friday.

The ſame day, in the houſe of commons, Mr. Long moved, that the houſe do adjourn till Friday next; and when the ſpeaker put the queſtion on that motion, Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he did not underſtand what miniſters meant by adjourning the houſe in that manner from day to day. He was ſurpriſed that not a ſingle miniſter then attended in his place: he thought this extremely indecent If there had been any perſon to have aſſured him that parliament was not to be prorogued on Friday, he ſhould not have oppoſed the adjournment till that day; but there being no one preſent who could give him that aſſurance, he felt it to be his duty to move an amendment to the motion, by leaving out the word 'Friday,' and ſubſtituting 'Thurſday,' in its place. His reaſon for moving this amendment was, in order to have an opportunity of bringing forward a propoſition, which, from the late events that had taken place on the continent, he conceived to be of conſiderable importance to the country: he therefore moved, that the houſe do adjourn till Thurſday.

Mr. Jekyll ſeconded this motion, and expreſſed his aſtoniſhment at the abſence of all the king's miniſters. He thought it reaſonable to expect to find them in their places to explain ſome late events, which were extremely curious and ſingular in their nature. He wiſhed thoſe gentlemen had been preſent to give an account to the houſe of the money that had been ſent to the king of Pruſſia. There was alſo another circumſtance which he could not help mentioning:—it had been formerly ſtated by his hon. friend in that houſe, that lord Dorcheſter had written a letter to the Indians reſpecting this country being about to be involved in a war with the American ſtates. The authenticity of that letter was flatly denied in that houſe, and when the ſame ſubject was brought forward by a noble friend of his in another place, this letter was treated as a groſs forgery; but now it had turned out, from the letters of Mr. Hammond, that what his hon. friend had ſaid with regard to that letter was correctly true.

Mr. Grey could not poſſibly account for the abſence of all his majeſty's miniſters on that occaſion, but by ſuppoſing it to be a part of that ſyſtem which had uniformly governed their conduct from the commencement of their adminiſtration. The miniſters of the crown had conſtantly conſidered themſelves as ſomething above the houſe of commons; and if they would not attend their places voluntarily, that houſe had a right to demand their attendance. The houſe, among many other things, had a right to aſk them the reaſon of the non-performance of the treaty with the king of Pruſſia. It was now more than two months ſince the Pruſſians were to have been in the field, and they had not yet begun to march, though the ſubſidy we had paid for their aſſiſtance was unprecedented in the hiſtory of the country. He thought the king's miniſters would have been better employed in attending their duty in parliament, than in ſettling new arrangements in the cabinet.

Mr. Long ſaid, he could not prevent the hon. gentleman from obtaining his amendment, as he might count the houſe out.

Mr. Sheridan explained, after which his amendment was carried.

On Thurſday, July 10, Mr. Sheridan roſe, to make his promiſed motion on the ſubject of the war. He obſerved, that it was his intention to follow up the motion he ſhould firſt ſubmit to the houſe, which would relate to the Pruſſian ſubſidy, with another to addreſs his majeſty to poſtpone the prorogation of parliament, in order to give the great national council an opportunity of conſidering, from time to time, and of adviſing his majeſty with reſpect to the preſent very momentous ſituation of public affairs; but previouſly to a proceeding of this nature, he thought it neceſſary that the houſe ſhould be informed by miniſters on certain points, in which the national intereſts were deeply involved, and which, from their preſent aſpect, loudly called for an enquiry into the cauſes in which ſuch diſgrace and diſaſter could originate. It was alſo neceſſary, that the repreſentatives of the people ſhould be informed, before they ſeparate, from authority, whether the objects of the war were changed, or whether the abſurd and chimerical one, which had been not long ago avowed, of the extirpation of the preſent government of France, was to be perſevered in; in which caſe the people would know what they had to truſt to. In caſe this was ſtill avowed, its abſurdity muſt be evident to all unprejudiced perſons, as events had happened ſince the laſt diſcuſſion of this ſubject, which rendered the accompliſhment of ſuch an object totally impracticable;

impracticable; for notwithſtanding all the extraordinary powers with which the government of this country were armed, the means to pay a moſt enormous ſubſidy, the power to raiſe corps of emigrants, and the like, the reſult was, their whole exertions were defeated, and followed by diſgrace, being driven by the enemy into a worſe ſituation than the allies were in at the commencement of the war. The cauſes of theſe calamitous events called for enquiry; and the firſt queſtion that preſented itſelf was the conduct of the king of Pruſſia. The houſe ſhould be informed, if any, or what troops were ſent by that monarch to join our armies, for which he had been paid an extravagant price, and which he was bound by treaty to have in the field on the 24th of May—but here he feared it would be found, that toward us this prince had manifeſted his accuſtomed treachery, a line of conduct which, if the miniſter had not been fully aware of before, he had been repeatedly warned of. The houſe ſhould likewiſe be informed why miniſters, who muſt know the great want of troops on the continent, ſhould ſo long ſuffer a fine body of men to remain inactive on the coaſt of Hampſhire, and holding out at the ſame time falſe, deluſive hopes to the deſerted and unhappy royaliſts of France; theſe, together with the abſurd and improvident meaſures which had been adopted, joined to the complicated treachery of our allies, were the cauſe of all our defeats and diſtreſſes, and the complete extinction of our hopes; and not only merited the fulleſt enquiry, but were ample grounds for changing the plan and object of the war: converting the former immediately into a defenſive one, and with reſpect to the latter a ſpeedy pacification, which he hoped were the preſent intentions of miniſters and their new colleagues. On the ſubject of the new miniſterial arrangements, Mr. Sheridan ſaid, that notwithſtanding the dereliction of certain parliamentary leaders from thoſe manly and conſtitutional principles, which had led them uniformly to oppoſe the meaſures of the preſent adminiſtration, and to reprobate their mode of acceſſion to office, he had ſtill ſo good an opinion of their principles, that he was convinced the call on them muſt be great indeed, and that they ſaw the national affairs in ſo dangerous a ſituation, as to induce them to ſet aſide all ſubordiate conſiderations, and to accept the conduct of affairs, in order, if poſſible, to ſave the country from the effects of thoſe miſfortunes into which their preſent fellow-miniſters had brought her.—The next point to be conſidered was of great importance, and was ſecondary only to the queſtion of the war; he meant the ſtate of the negociation between this country and America, with which the abſurd policy of miniſters had nearly involved us in a rupture. It was well known that the characters of the miniſters of this country were held in the moſt odious light in America; and when he conſidered ſuch to be the reſult of ſeven years negociation with that country, and ſo many experimental annual meaſures, he muſt be of opinion, that the inflammatory anſwer given by lord Dorcheſter to the Indian chiefs, proceeded from authority: it was, however, in the higheſt degree material, that the houſe ſhould be informed of the preciſe relative ſituation of both countries.—He concluded by making his firſt motion (which, if carried, he ſaid, he ſhould follow up by others) namely, 'That an account he laid before the houſe, of the monies paid to his Pruſſian majeſty, purſuant to the treaty made on the 19th of April 1794; and an account of the number of troops employed in co-operation with his majeſty's troops in conſequence.'

The chancellor of the exchequer obſerved, that the hon. gentleman's ſpeech, affected three queſtions, namely, the object of the war, the circumſtances of the Pruſſian ſubſidy, and the ſtate of the negociation between this country and America. With reſpect to the two latter points, he did not conceive that the conſideration of thoſe matters, in their preſent ſtate, was properly within the province of the legiſlature; but with reſpect to the firſt important concern, he would now, as he had always done, diſtinctly ſtate his ſentiments; namely, that the uniformly avowed objects of the war were not in the leaſt changed; that they were principally the deſtruction of the preſent jacobinical ſyſtem of government in France, which conſummation this country was bound to endeavour to effect, not more by intereſt than with a view to its ſafety and exiſtence, and which ſyſtem would be followed with deciſion and increaſed energy, by thoſe characters who were about to participate in the government of the country; and in ſo doing, not only the ſafety, tranquillity, and independence of Europe would be preſerved, but the emancipation of France from a horde of ſanguinary and deſpotic uſurpers, which were equally deſtructive to that country, and hoſtile to

all the regular governments of Europe. That from this great and desirable end, the powers in alliance would not be deterred by any temporary ill successes, which, in an extensive prosecution of hostilities, were frequently to be expected; that the union of sentiment between the combined powers to this end still existed in its full force; and he doubted not but their united resources, directed with perseverance and energy, would be productive of the desired ends. Without the accomplishment of these objects, he contended peace could not be secure; and without security it was not valuable. These objects were clearly defined in the speeches and messages from the throne, and were promised to be adhered to by both houses of parliament, as they were the groundwork of our treaties with our allies, and could not be deserted, without abandoning every sentiment of faith and honour, every regard for our own safety and existence, and for that of Europe. Could we think of retreating while in our power to do otherwise? The vicissitudes of war, nor any temporary ill success, could ever alter his sentiments or conduct. He knew how dearly those successes were bought by the enemy, and was aware of the daily diminution of their resources. The objects of the war, therefore, were unchanged, and he doubted not but our united efforts would be crowned with ultimate success.

With respect to the Prussian subsidy, he would only observe, that ministers were responsible for the advice given to the crown in concluding the treaty, and were bound to fulfil the stipulations of it; at the same time they were bound to oblige the other contracting party to adhere to his part, and to fulfil his engagements, with respect to the employment of the troops. He must say, that such consideration did not belong to the house, unless it had a mind to assume the direction of the executive government; and perhaps, the present particular mode of employing the Prussian troops might be deemed as serviceable to the grand cause, as if in the heart of West Flanders. Of these matters the executive government was to decide, and ministers in due time were to render an account.

On the same grounds, he must decline answering the hon. gentleman's question respecting the American negociation, as it must be obvious, that such were not fit subjects for discussion, while a treaty was under consideration. The idea also of continuing the session of parliament was not only irregular, but on the same grounds ineffectual; for the conduct of the operation of the war being out of its power, to what end could it sit? As, therefore, the hon. gentleman's motion avowedly led to the discussion of points which he hoped he had convinced the house were not proper for discussion at present, he deemed it his duty to give it a decided negative.

The hon. gentleman had said, that ministers were unpopular in America; and had fortunately coupled with that assertion another which answered it, namely, that there was a jacobin party in that country. With jacobins, he expected to be always unpopular.

The hon. gentleman had asked, what but great and awful necessity could have urged the union now taking place in the cabinet? 'This question,' said he, 'I will answer by another. What greater necessity can there exist to true lovers of their country, than to see that the political questions on foot, and daily brought into agitation, attack the throne, and go to the subversion of parliament itself?' As to the noble characters the hon. gentleman alluded to, and he himself (Mr. Pitt) and his friends, they were not now disputing what description of men were most likely to serve with effect their government and country; they were not contesting parliamentary points of legislation; they were not arguing the expediency of a particular measure adopted for the management of India, nor discussing what were the merits of a peace made twelve years ago; but were considering what were the best means to preserve the lives, liberty, and property, of all Englishmen, from the ruthless hand of violence, rapine, and assassination—and, tendering those, thought themselves bound to abandon party feuds, and unite. They had accordingly united, and on that union should act; and if they failed, should at least have the consolation to reflect, that they had left no effort unattempted on their part, to rescue their country from impending ruin, and save from utter extinction the order and tranquility of the world.

Mr. Grey observed, that we were engaged in a ruinous war; and by the language held out by the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Pitt) the country had the consolation to find, that we were still determined to prosecute a project so fatal and calamitous in its nature. The right hon. gentleman had called the disasters that befel the combined powers in all quarters,

mere accidental events and temporary misfortunes. He would ask the right hon. gentleman, whether the combined powers were not driven back to the places whence they originally set out? The right hon. gentleman had observed, that this was a conteſt to reſcue the people of France from the moſt oppreſſive yoke of tyranny that could poſſibly be impoſed upon them by perſons that had uſurped the executive authority. But how was that to be effected? Did the preſent poſture of affairs afford the moſt diſtant proſpect of ſucceſs? Did the diſpoſition evinced by the people of France during the moſt ſucceſsful period of the campaign, authoriſe the right hon. gentleman to aſſert, that there was any thing like ſucceſs to be hoped for from our future exertions? But how alarming was it for the country to be given to underſtand, that, notwithſtanding the very great diſaſters that had lately befallen the combined powers, we were ſtill determined to proſecute the moſt deſtructive of projects!—Were the armies of France diſbanded? Were they diſorganiſed? On the contrary, they were more numerous than ever. How many millions more were to be expended, and how much more blood was to be ſhed, in the attempt to deſtroy that ſyſtem of government with which at laſt we would be obliged to treat? In his opinion, it would be wiſe and politic to acknowledge the government of France, and immediately to ſet about propoſing terms of peace. To this meaſure his majeſty's miniſters had been repeatedly adviſed; but the right hon. gentleman would not liſten to any thing that fell from that ſide of the houſe, and was reſolved to proſecute this war of deſtruction. The houſe was emphatically told, that the conſequence of the recent coalition (which Mr. Grey termed a *monſtrous coalition*) would be the continuance of the avowed project of deſtruction. With reſpect to the two laſt points, the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Pitt) had given the anſwer to them that he expected—With regard to America, the old plea of a pending negociation was reſorted to. As it was wiſe at the preſent very alarming conjuncture for the parliament to continue to ſit by ſhort adjournments, in order to be ready upon any occaſion of emergency to give the moſt ſalutary advice, the motion that was made by his hon. friend ſhould have his decided ſupport.

Mr. Sheridan roſe in reply—He was ſorry to find that the ſpeech of the right hon. gentleman had confirmed the opinion he had always entertained of him, viz. that he was a miniſter who could not be improved by experience, and who could not be cured of his raſhneſs by the long train of calamitous events which his precipitancy or imbecility had brought upon the country. He was happy that this debate had taken place, becauſe, if no other advantage was gained by it, at leaſt this one had been obtained, that miniſters had taken care that the public ſhould not be deluded by any fallacious hopes of a change of meaſures, by declaring themſelves more than ever wedded to their deſtructive and viſionary ſyſtem of exterminating the French jacobins. But in thus pledging themſelves to theſe ruinous meaſures, miniſters ſeemed either really or affectedly to be ignorant of the total change which had taken place in the opinions of the people of this country reſpecting the war in Flanders. A change more ſudden and more univerſal, he believed, never before took place in the popular opinions of any country. That very object, viz. the conqueſt of France, which ſome time ſince the ſanguine diſpoſition of the people, together with the deluſions practiſed upon them, led them to look to as certain, was now treated as chimerical in the extreme. It appeared to him a matter of no ſmall aſtoniſhment, that in the proſecution of this ſyſtem, they ſeemed to have totally forgotten that there exiſted ſuch a ſpot on the globe as America. He ſhould have ſuppoſed that the innumerable calamities brought upon this country by the American war, would at leaſt have had this good effect, that they would have deterred future miniſters from hazarding the proſperity and honour of this country for the attainment of objects to which no human power was adequate.

The queſtion being then put on Mr. Sheridan's motion, was negatived without a diviſion. Mr. Sheridan then ſaid, that having failed in this, he would not trouble the houſe with his other motions.

After this, the chancellor of the exchequer moved, "That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, praying his majeſty to give directions for the erection of monuments in Weſtminſter-abbey, to the memory of captains Harvey and Hunt." This motion was carried nem. con.

On Friday, July 11, his majeſty put an end to the ſeſſion by a moſt gracious ſpeech from the throne.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ODE TO THE KING,

On his Arrival at WEYMOUTH.

By the Rev. W. TASKER.

THE Nation's loyal vows shall not be vain!
Goddess of Health, Hygeia! from the main
Wafted by healing breezes rise;
Aid the mild influence of the skies:
Expand thy zephyr's gentle gales
O'er Dorset hills and Melcombe's vales:
Pure air from strength'ning ocean bring
Fragrant and fresh for Britain's king:
Pure air instinct with native power,
Unsoil'd by noxious herb or flower.

God of the Sea! (whose torrents cease to roar,
And in slow tide,
Delighted glide
On royal Melcombe's * circling shore)
From hidden treasures of thy wealth,
Give that most precious jewel—health:
And yield it as a tribute free,
Great ruler of the deep from thee:
Establish'd health—most brilliant gem,
That can adorn a monarch's diadem.

God of the sea! since George hath deign'd to lave
In thy salt-stream, and vigour-giving wave:
Brace to new strength his sceptre'd hand,
Strongly to grasp the enlign of command,
And raise it high! 'till distant realms obey
And court the umpire of its righteous sway:
Second to thee, let him controul the main,
But, o'er his subjects hearts, without a rival reign.

Great God of healing, heat, and light!
O Sol! slate in beaming car,
In radiant course conspicuous far,
Dispel invidious shades of night,
Resume thy wonted splendours bright:
Bid the foul mists † and vapours fly,
That late obscur'd thy piercing eye:
Bid the ripe corn-fields laugh and sing,
In joyful sympathy with Britain's king:
Diffuse o'er Charlotte's cheek the lasting smile,
Thence let the cheering beam illumine Albion's isle!

Ye maids on Pindus' flowery top who dwell,
Attune to dulcet notes the sounding shell:
Exert your magic power, and charms divine,
With rosy-finger'd morn, harmonious Nine!
Round George's patriot brow the wreath of health to twine.

While nobler bards may strike the lyre,
Impregnate with extatic fire!
Permit thy humble votary to bring
His mite of song to thee, O king!
E'en as the gentle rivulet of Wey
Rolls his small current to the monarch sea.

ODE TO PEACE.

[From the Shrine of Bertha, a Novel, by Miss Robinson.]

OH Peace! thou nymph of modest mien!
Where, where dost thou delight to stray?
Dost thou o'er mountains bend thy way,
When ev'ning spreads its shades serene?
Or dost thou fly from scorching light,
To seek the tufted vale?
Or midst the solemn noon of night,
List to the love-lorn minstrel's tale?
Or in the hermit's solitary cell,
In simple vestment clad, with holy silence dwell?

Fair, first born, placid child of Jove!
An humble suppliant deign to hear;
If from thy starry-spangled sphere,
Thou stoop'st o'er mortal scenes to rove;
If ever to the lonely shed
Of agony and grief,
Thy slow and timid footsteps tread
To bring the balm of sure relief;
Oh! quickly come, and through each aching vein,
Thy fainted balsam pour, to lull my fev'rish brain,

The vain, the busy world I scorn;
I seek no gaudy scenes of guile;
Where falsehood courts with murd'rous smile,
And pleasure mocks the wretch forlorn;
To unillumin'd caves I'll fly,
Or climb the mountain's crest;
And hid from ev'ry curious eye,
Steal softly to thy halcyon breast;

* The ancient name of Weymouth was Melcombe Regis, or King's Melcomb.
† In allusion to the dark and gloomy weather at the time the Ode was composed.

Who

Where ſoothing viſions round my form ſhall move,
And one long tranquil dream my weary ſenſes prove.

Already from my throbbing heart,
The killing ſhaft of anguiſh flies;
Hope ſparkles in my grateful eyes,
And reaſon blunts affliction's dart,
About my waiſt no myrtle leaves;
No roſe adorns my brow;
Nor yet the poppy's numbing leaves;
Nor yet the laurels pompous bough;
Then Peace! thy healing olive let me own,
And let me ſteal thro' life—Unenvied and unknown.

SONNET.

[From the Same]

THE ſhepherd boy, on yonder mountain's creſt,
Chants his rude carol to the morning gale,
Or marks, with tranquil eye and thoughtleſs breaſt,
Pale twilight's ſhadows ſtealing o'er the vale.

But I, alas! unconſcious of repoſe,
Count the long tedious hours, with many a ſigh;
While my ſad heart, no tender ſolace knows,
Save the fond hope, to ſee thee once, and die.

Oh! Henry! when this fading form ſhall freeze,
Beneath the hallow'd turf for ever laid;
While o'er my boſom moans the midnight breeze,
Say, wilt thou drop one tear—to ſooth my ſhade:
Some wealthy maid, thy darling bride ſhall be;
I'll boaſt the prouder bliſs! to die for thee!

TO THE POLAR STAR.

HAIL to thy golden light, propitious ſtar!
Bleſt be the hour that gives me back thy ray;
No more I'll wander from thy influence far,
But reſt content beneath a milder day.

When to the morning's dazzling ſhores I flew;
Futurity in bright diſorder ſhone;
Riches and glory glitter'd in my view,
And hope, too ſanguine, mark'd them for my own.

But where the heart no tender intereſt feels,
Glory and wealth united, loſe their zeſt;
Indifference o'er their ſad poſſeſſor ſteals,
Or pleaſure viſits him, a fleeting gueſt.

'Tis love alone can give the thinking mind
One genuine tranſport, one delightful hour:
Inſpir'd by love, the ſpirit ſoars refin'd,
And ſmiles contempt on fickle fortune's power.

Then, beauteous planet, guide us to that ſhore,
Where, to my Caroline's ſoft boſom preſt,
Ambition ſhall diſturb my thoughts no more,
Of love, of peace, and mild content poſſeſt.

CHARACTER of JULIUS CÆSAR.

[From Mr. Jephſon's Roman Portraits.]

THE lambent flame of Cæſar's fire touch'd ſoul
No fears cou'd damp nor principle controul.
At manhood's dawning of his ſire bereft,
To form his mind was to Aurelia left;
And Nature's laviſh gifts, that mother's love,
With care increaſing, fail'd not to improve.
All that wiſe ſchools, or wiſer ſeers could teach,
What ſtudy cou'd acquire, or talents reach,
His youth attain'd; nor could inſtruction give
More than his rare endowments cou'd receive.
Round the ſharp goal to whirl the rapid car,
To launce the javelin whiſtling thro' the air,
To give new ſpirit to the bounding horſe,
And ſtem the headlong torrent in its courſe,
None knew like him: thus manly toil ſupply'd
What daintier Nature to his frame deny'd.
While yet a youth, his dauntleſs brow alone,
With equal menace met proud Sylla's frown;
Till with prophetic voice the tyrant cried,
He many Marii in that boy eſpy'd.
Graceful his mien with eloquence to charm,
In peace prevailing, as in fight his arm:
Nor Tully only would have rul'd the bar,
Had not ambition fir'd his ſoul for war.

When

When his bright orb aſcends the Heſperian ſky,
Rome's leſſer ſtars fade from the galaxy;
The ſplendour of their former rays is gone,
Or all concenter'd ſhine in him alone.
Whatever age had ſeen great Julius riſe,
Where'er his birth beneath th' extended ſkies,
So vaſt, ſo various were his powers of mind
He muſt have been ſupreme and rul'd mankind.

Characters of Anthony and Cleopatra.

[From the Same.]

BUT not content with half the world's domain,
Cæſar and Antony alone would reign:
The firſt, a ſteady ſceptre born to wield,
O'er all his acts extends the public ſhield;
The laſt, abhorrent from the toils of ſtate,
Rots on the Nile, a hoary profligate:
While ſubtle Cæſar ſapp'd his eaſtern throne,
He claſp'd his world in Cleopatra's zone.
Nor ſhe for whom Dardanian Troy was loſt,
The pride of nature, and her country's boaſt;
Nor ſhe, who bade the Macedonian's hand
Hurl at Perſepolis the blazing brand,
Nor Phædra, nor Ariadne ſtill more fair,
Could with the ſorcereſs of Nile compare:
In her, not face and ſhape alone could pleaſe
(Though with unrival'd grace ſhe charm'd by theſe)
But the whole ſtore of Cytherea's wiles,
Sighs, gentleſt blandiſhments, and ambuſh'd ſmiles;
The ready tear, the bluſh of well-feign'd truth,
And the ripe woman, freſh as new-ſprung youth.
Beneath her roſeat palms the lute compreſs'd,
Chas'd thought and trouble from the anxious breaſt;
In dulcet bonds the impriſon'd ſoul ſhe held,
While the ſweet chords her warbling voice excell'd.
A thouſand forms the ſyren could put on,
And ſeem as many miſtreſſes in one;
Serious or ſportive, as the mood requir'd,
No whim grew irkſome, and no frolic tir'd;
Enough of coyneſs to provoke deſire,
Of warmth enough to ſhare the amorous fire,
All, her delighted lovers could receive,
Seem'd but fond earneſts ſhe had more to give;
Nor with poſſeſſion was the promiſe o'er,
Love's fruit and flower at once her boſom bore;
No languid pauſe of bliſs near her was known,
But with new joys new hours came laughing on.
By arts like theſe was wiſer Julius won,
And Antony, more fond, was more undone.
His ſoul, enamour'd, to the wanton clung,
Glow'd at her eyes, or melted from her tongue;
Lull'd in the dear elyſium of her arms,
Nor intereſt moves him, nor ambition warms:
Sometimes, with ſhort remorſe, he look'd within,
But kept at once the conſcience and the ſin:
In vain he ſaw the yawning ruin nigh;
Content with her, he bade the world go by;
He ſought no covert of the friendly ſhade,
'Twas half the zeſt to have his ſhame diſplay'd.
He deem'd it ſtill his beſt exchange through life,
A melting miſtreſs for a railing wife.
Perpetual orgies unabaſh'd they keep,
Wine fires their veins, and revels baniſh ſleep:
Timbrels and ſongs, and feaſts of deaf'ning joy,
By arts till then unknown, forbore to cloy.
See for one banquet a whole kingdom ſink,
And gems diſſolv'd, impearl her luſcious drink.
Pleaſure was hunted through each impious mode;
An Iſis ſhe, and he the vine-crown'd god.
Old Nile, aſtoniſh'd, on his boſom bore
Monſters more ſtrange than e'er deform'd his ſhore;
For what ſo monſtrous ſight beneath the ſkies
As ſelf created human deities?—
But heaven, for vengeful retribution, means
The ſword and aſp ſhould cloſe theſe frantic ſcenes.
Spectators mute the ſorrowing captains ſtand,
While empire moulders from his palſied hand;

But

But rous'd at length, unwilling, to the fight,
His ſtar at Actium ſunk in endleſs night.
With equal pomp, as when down Cydnus' ſtream
Her burniſh'd prow ſtruck back the ſon's bright beam,
The enchantreſs bade her bloated train prepare
To meet the horrors of the naval war;
But the firſt ſhouts her trembling ſpirits quail;
She flies, and he purſues her ſhameful ſail;
His heart-ſtrings to the harlot's rudder tied,
What luſt began, his dotage ratified:
In Alexandria's towers he veil'd his head,
Where, ſelf-expell'd, the vital ſpirit fled.
He tried all vices, and ſurpaſs'd in all,
Luxurious, cruel, wild, and prodigal;
Laviſh of hours, of character, and gold,
But warlike, hardy, and in dangers bold;
His mind was ſuited to the boiſterous times,
A ſoldier's virtues, and a tyrant's crimes.

OCTOBER.

By Mr. BRIDGES.

O Lov'd October! ſtill my vacant day,
As thou return'ſt, in rural ſweets ſhall fly,
'Mid yellow fields, 'mid woods of tawny dye,
Whoſe fragrant leaves about my pathway play;
By ruſſet hedges, all thy morns I'll ſtray;
And round the cheerful fire, in converſe high,
With choiceſt ſpirits meet, when o'er the ſky
Soft ſocial Evening draws her mantle grey.
Nor will we ceaſe till midnight's reign profound,
The ſweet communion of the fleeting hour,
While blaſts, that yet but weakly whiſtle round,
Urge to enjoy the moment in our power;
Warning of winter days, in tumult drown'd,
Far from the quiet of the rural bower.

CHARGE *delivered to the* GRAND JURY, *at the* Seſſions Houſe, Clerkenwell Green, *on Thurſday, October 2, by the Right Hon. Sir* JAMES EYRE, *Lord Chief Juſtice of the Common Pleas, and Lord Preſident of the Special Commiſſion for the Trial of ſundry Perſons confined in the* TOWER *on* CHARGES *of* HIGH TREASON.

Gentlemen of this Grand Inqueſt,

YOU are aſſembled under the authority of the king's commiſſion, which has been iſſued for the trial of the offences of high treaſon and miſpriſion of treaſon, againſt the perſon and authority of the king. The occaſion for this commiſſion is that which is declared, namely, that a traiterous and deteſtable conſpiracy has been formed for ſubverting the exiſting laws and conſtitution; and for producing the ſyſtem of anarchy and confuſion which have ſo fatally prevailed in France. A crime of that deep malignity loudly calls on the juſtice of the nation to interpoſe for the better preſervation of his majeſty's ſacred perſon, and for ſecuring the peace, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom.

Gentlemen, the firſt and effective ſtep in this, as in the ordinary criminal proceedings, is, that a grand jury of the country ſhould make inquiſition after the fact, ſhould diligently enquire, diſcover, and bring forward to the view of the criminal magiſtrate, thoſe offences which it is the object of this ſpecial commiſſion to hear and to determine.

Gentlemen, you are jurors for our ſovereign lord the king. You are ſo ſtyled in every indictment which is preſented. But let the true nature of the ſervice be underſtood. The king commands you to enter on this enquiry. But the royal authority in this as in every other function, is exerted and operates ultimately for the benefit of his people. It is the king's object to vindicate his peace, his crown and dignity, becauſe his peace, his crown and dignity, are his ſubjects protection, their ſecurity and their happineſs. It is ultimately for them that the laws have thrown extraordinary fences around the perſon and authority of the king, and that attempts againſt the one or the other are conſidered as the higheſt crime which can be committed, and are puniſhed with a ſeverity which nothing but the *ſalus populi* can juſtify.

The buſineſs of this day, gentlemen, calls upon me, in order that you may the better underſtand the ſubject which is to

come before you, to open to you the nature of that offence which I have before spoken of generally. An ancient statute, a 5th Edward III, has declared and defined it. I shall state to you so much of that declaration and definition as appears to me to have any probable relation to the business of this day. By that statute, it is declared to be high treason to compass or imagine the death of the king, provided such compassing and imagination be manifested by some act or acts, proved by two witnesses to have been done by the party accused, in prosecution of that compassing and imagination. That, from the moment that this wicked imagination of the heart is acted upon, that any steps are taken, in any manner conducive to the bringing about and effecting the design, the intention becomes the crime, and the measure of it is full.

Gentlemen, these acts or steps are technically denominated overt acts; and the forms of proceeding in cases of this nature, require that these overt acts should be particularly set forth in every indictment of treason; and from the nature of them, they must constitute the principal head of enquiry for the grand jury. These overt acts involve in them two distinct considerations; first, the matter of fact, of which they consist; in the next place, the relation of that fact to the design. With respect to the mere matter of fact, it will be for the grand jury to enquire into the true state of it; and I can have very little to offer to your consideration respecting it; and with respect to the question, whether the fact has a relation to the design, so as to constitute overt acts, of this which involves considerations both of law and of fact, it is impossible that any certain rule can be laid down for your direction. Overt acts being in their nature all the possible means which may be used in the prosecution of the end proposed, they can be no other way defined, and must remain for ever infinitely various. Thus far, however, I can inform you, that occasions have unhappily, but too frequently, brought overt acts of this species of high treason under consideration, in consequence of which we are furnished with judicial opinions upon many of them. And we are also furnished with opinions drawn from this source, by some of the wisest and most enlightened men of their time; whose integrity has been always considered as the most prominent feature in their character; whose doctrines now form great land marks, by which posterity will be enabled to trace, with a great degree of certainty, the boundary line between high treason and offences of a lower order and degree. It is a fortunate circumstance that we are thus assisted, for it is not to be dissembled, though the crime of high treason be the greatest crime against faith, duty, and human society, and though the public is deeply interested in every prosecution of this kind, well founded, that there has been, in the best times, a considerable degree of jealousy on the subject of such prosecutions; and as the consequences to the party accused are penal in the extreme, jurors and judges ought to feel an extraordinary anxiety that prosecutions of this nature should proceed on solid grounds. I can easily conceive, therefore, that it must be a great relief to jurors placed in the responsible situation in which you now stand, bound to do justice to their country and the persons accused, and anxious to discharge this first duty, equally sure I am that it is a consolation and comfort to us, who have the responsibility of declaring what the law is in cases in which the public and individuals are so deeply interested, to have such men as the great sir Matthew Hale and sir Michael Foster for our guides. To proceed by steps, from those writers who speak upon the authority of adjudged cases, we learn, that not only acts of immediate and direct attempt against the king's life, are overt acts of compassing his death; but that all the remoter steps, taken with a view to assist the bringing about the actual attempt, are equally overt acts of this species of high treason. Even the meeting and consulting what measures should be taken in order to bring about the end proposed, have been always held to be acts done in prosecution of the design, and, as such, overt acts of this treason. This is our first step in the present inquiry.

I proceed to observe, that what I have been now speaking of, has reference nearer, or more remote, to a direct and immediate attempt upon the life of the king. But the same authority informs us, that they who aim directly at the life of the king, such, for instance, as the persons concerned in the assassination plot, in king William's time, are not the only persons who compass or imagine the death of the king. The taking those measures which, in the nature of things, or in the common experience of mankind, do obviously tend to bring the life of the king into danger, is to compass and imagine his death; and the measures so taken, amount at once to evidence of overt acts. The instances put

by

by sir Michael Forster and sir Matthew Hale, are of a conspiracy to depose the king, to imprison him, to get his person into the power of the conspirators, to procure an invasion of the kingdom, and some others.

The first of these appears to be the strongest case, and coming the nearest to a direct attempt against the life of the king; the last, the farthest removed from that direct attempt; but being a measure tending to destroy the public peace of the country, to introduce hostility, and the necessity of resisting force by force, and in its ultimate tendency to bring the person even of the king into jeopardy, it is taken on the sound construction of 25 Edward III, and by the clear law of the land, that this is also compassing and imagining the death of the king.

Gentlemen, if a conspiracy to depose or to imprison the king, to get his person into the power of the conspirators, or to procure an invasion of the kingdom, involves in it the compassing and imagining his death; and if steps taken in prosecution of such conspiracy are rightly judged overt acts of compassing and imagining the king's death, need I add, if it should appear that it has entered into the heart of any man, who is a subject of this kingdom, to design to overthrow the whole government of the country, to pull down, to subvert from its very foundation the British monarchy, that glorious fabric, which it has been the great work of ages to erect, maintain, and support; which has been cemented by the best blood of our ancestors; to design such a horrible and cruel devastation, which no king could survive, which is a crime of such a nature, that no legislature of this country has ever ventured to contemplate in its full extent; need I add, I say, that in a proposition of such enormous extent, the compassing and imagining the death of the king is involved, that it is in truth of its very essence. This is too plain a case to require farther illustration from me. If any man of plain sense, but not conversant with subjects of this nature, should feel himself disposed to ask, whether it is a specific treason to compass and imagine the death of the king, and not a specific treason to conspire to subvert the monarchy itself; I answer, the statute of Edward III, has not declared this, which undoubtedly is one of the greatest of all treasons, to be a specific high treason. I said, no lawgiver has ever ventured to contemplate it in its whole extent. The *Seditio Regni*, spoken of by some of our ancient writers, seems to come nearest to it, but falls very short of it. The constitution of our government is so framed, that the imperial crown of the realm is the common center of the whole, that all traitorous attempts upon any part of it are instantly communicated to that center, and felt there; and as upon every principle of public policy and justice, they are punishable as traitorous attempts against the king's person or authority, so according to the particular nature of the traitorous attempts made, they will come within one or other of the specific treasons against the king declared by 25 Edward III. This, greatest of all treasons, is sufficiently provided against by law.

Gentlemen, I hardly need give you this caution in your enquiry, that it is expressly declared, by the highest authority, that there do exist in this country men capable of meditating the destruction of the constitution under which they live. That declaration being extrajudicial, is not ground on which you ought to proceed. In consequence of that declaration, it becomes a public and indispensible duty of his majesty to institute this solemn proceeding, and to impose on you the painful task of examining these accusations which will be brought before you. But it will be your duty to examine them in a regular judicial course, that is, by hearing the evidence, and forming your own judgment upon it. And here I do not think it necessary to trouble you with observations on the other branches of the statute of the 25th Edward III. The charge might conclude here, had not the particular nature of the conspiracy alledged to have been formed against the state been disclosed, and made matter of public notoriety by the reports of the two houses of parliament, which are now in every one's hands. That being the case, I apprehend it would not be thought I had fulfilled the duty which the judge owes to the grand jury, when questions involving law arise on new and extraordinary cases of fact, if I did not plainly and distinctly state to you what I conceived the law to be, or what doubts I considered might arise in law, upon that which is laid before you, according to the different points of view in which these facts may appear. It is matter of public notoriety, that there have been associations formed in this country, as well as in other parts of the kingdom, in order to effect a change in the constitution of the commons house of parliament, and to obtain annual parliaments; and to some of these associations other purposes,

poſes, hidden under the veil, purpoſes the moſt traitorous, have been imputed, and that ſome of theſe aſſociations have been ſuppoſed to have actually adopted meaſures of ſuch a nature, and to have gone to ſuch exceſſes as will amount to the crime of high treaſon: that a parliamentary reform was a mere colour and pretext held out in order to cover deeper deſigns—deſigns againſt the whole conſtitution and government of the country. Whether it be ſo or not, is mere matter of fact. I ſhall only remind you, that a charge of this nature, which undertakes to make out the oſtenſible purpoſe a mere veil under which is concealed a traitorous conſpiracy, requires full and deliberate examination, and the moſt attentive conſideration; and that the reſult ſhould be perfectly clear and ſatisfactory. In the affairs of common life, no man imputes to another a deſign contrary to what he himſelf has expreſſed, but upon the fulleſt evidence. On the other hand, if the charge can be made out, it is adding to the crime the deepeſt diſſimulation in thoſe who have embarked in ſuch a dark ſyſtem of iniquity and wickedneſs.

But, gentlemen, ſuppoſe theſe aſſociations to have adopted the moſt profligate purpoſes, and to have no other view, it may be aſked, Is it poſſible? and if it be poſſible, by what proceſs is it, that an aſſociation for the reform of parliament can work itſelf up to the crime of high treaſon? Gentlemen may, nay, gentlemen muſt, if they poſſeſs the faculty of thinking, reaſon on every thing that ſufficiently intereſts them—that becomes an object of attention, and, among objects of attention, is that of a ſyſtem of true government. The conſtitution of particular governments, and, above all, the conſtitution of the government under which they live, will naturally engage attention, and provoke ſpeculation. The communication of ſentiments is the ſource of all ſcience, the firſt fruits and the ultimate happineſs of ſociety; and therefore it ſeems to follow, that human laws ought not to interpoſe, nay, cannot interpoſe to prevent the communication of ſentiments and opinions of voluntary aſſemblies of men: all which is true, with that ſingle reſervation—that thoſe aſſemblies are to be ſo compoſed, and ſo conducted as not to endanger the public peace and good order of the government under which they live.

Gentlemen, I ſhall not now ſtate to you, that aſſociations and aſſemblies of men, for the purpoſe of obtaining a reform in the interior conſtitution of the Britiſh parliament, are ſimply unlawful; but, on the other hand, I muſt ſtate, that they may, if I may ſay ſo, degenerate, and become unlawful in the higheſt degree, even to the enormous extent of the crime of high treaſon. Gentlemen, to prove this, let us imagine to ourſelves this caſe: a few well-meaning men conceive, that they and their fellow-ſubjects labour under ſome grievance. They aſſemble peaceably to deliberate on the means of obtaining redreſs. The number increaſes, the diſcuſſion grows animated, eager and violent. A raſh meaſure is propoſed, adopted, and acted upon. Who can ſay where this will ſtop, and that thoſe men who originally aſſembled peaceably, ſhall not finally and ſuddenly, perhaps, involve themſelves in the crime of high treaſon? It is impoſſible to ſay how far an impetuous man may precipitate ſuch aſſemblies into crimes of unforeſeen magnitude and danger. But let it be conſidered, that bad men may alſo find their way into ſuch aſſemblies, and uſe the innocent purpoſe of their aſſociation as a ſtalking-horſe to their purpoſes of a very different complexion. How eaſy for ſuch men to practice on the credulity and the enthuſiaſm of honeſt men lovers of their country, loyal to their prince, but perhaps eagerly bent on ſome ſpeculative improvement in the frame and interior mechaniſm of the law. If we ſuppoſe bad men to have once gained an aſcendency in an aſſembly of this deſcription, popular in its conſtitution, and viewing popular objects, it will be eaſy for ſuch men to implicate ſuch an aſſembly in the moſt dreadful exceſſes. Thus far am I ſpeaking in general, merely to illuſtrate this propoſition: that men who aſſemble to procure a reform in parliament may involve themſelves in the guilt of high treaſon. The notoriety of theſe aſſociations leads me to ſuppoſe, that the project of a convention of the people, to be aſſembled under the advice and direction of ſome of theſe ſocieties, or of delegates from them, will be the leading fact which will be laid before you in evidence, reſpecting the conduct and meaſures of theſe aſſociations; a project, which, perhaps, in other times, would be hardly thought worthy of much conſideration; but in theſe our days, when it has been attempted to be put in execution, in a diſtant part of the united kingdom, and the example of a neighbouring country before our eyes, it has become deſervedly an object of the jealouſy of the law. Gentlemen, it will be your duty to give it the moſt ſerious attention, to ſift it to the bottom, to conſider every part of it by itſelf, and as it ſtands connected with other

parts, and to draw the concluſion of fact, as to the exiſtence, nature and object of that propoſed convention from the whole of the evidence. As to bodies of men having been connected together, having voted different reſolutions at different meetings, and as to ſeveral preparations of offenſive weapons, and of the adoption of the language of the convention of France, who have poſſeſſed themſelves of the government of that country, I do not dwell on theſe particulars, becauſe I conſider them not as ſubſtantive treaſons, but as circumſtances of evidence tending to aſcertain the true nature of the object which thoſe perſons had in view. It does not fall within the province of this charge to conſider that evidence in detail. My preſent duty is to inform you what is the law upon the matter of fact, which in your judgment ſhall be the reſult of the evidence. I preſume I have ſufficiently explained to you, that a project to bring the people together in a convention, in imitation of thoſe national conventions of France, in order to uſurp the government of the country; and alſo one ſtep taken toward bringing it about, would be a caſe of no difficulty. It would be the cleareſt high treaſon. It would be compaſſing and imagining the king's death, and not only his death, but the death and deſtruction of all order, religion, law, all property, all ſecurity for the lives and liberties of the king's ſubjects.

That which remains to be conſidered is the project of a convention, having for its object to effect a change in the mode of repreſenting the people, and obtaining annual parliaments. And here the project of ſuch a convention, taking it to be criminal, may be criminal in different degrees, according to the caſe in evidence, by which you will examine the true nature and extent of the plan, and manner in which it is intended to operate; and it will become an object of great importance under what claſs of crimes it ought to be laid. In deciding on the complexion and quality of this project of a convention, you will lay down one principle, which is never to be departed from—that alterations in the repreſentation of the people in parliament, or in the law for holding parliaments, can only be effected by the authority of the king, lords, and commons, in parliament aſſembled.

This being taken as a foundation, it ſeems to follow as a neceſſary conſequence, that a project of a convention, which ſhould have for its object the obtaining a parliamentary reform, and not that object only but the attaining it without the authority of parliament, and ſteps taken upon it, would be high treaſon in all the actors of it. For this is a conſpiracy to overturn the government. The government cannot be ſaid to exiſt, if the functions of legiſlation are uſurped for one moment; and then it becomes of little conſequence, indeed, that the original conſpirators at firſt perhaps only had in view a plan of moderate reform. In the nature of things, a power once uſurped is out of their hands and beyond the reach of their controul. A conſpiracy of this nature is therefore, at beſt, a conſpiracy to overturn the government, in order to new model it, which is in effect to introduce anarchy, and that which anarchy may chance to bring along with it, after the king may be brought to the ſcaffold, and the country may have ſuffered all the miſeries which bloodſhed and civil war may produce.

Gentlemen, whether the project of a convention, which has for its object the collecting together a power which ſhould overawe the legiſlative body, but not ſuſpend it, and ſhould extort a parliamentary reform—whether this will amount to high treaſon, and to the ſpecific high treaſon of compaſſing and imagining the king's death, is a more doubtful queſtion: thus far is clear, a force upon the parliament muſt be manifeſtly directed againſt the king, who is an integral part of it. It muſt reach the king, or it can have no effect at all. The laws are enacted in parliament by the king, together with and by the lords and commons in parliament aſſembled. A force meditated againſt his perſon is, therefore, a force meditated againſt the king, and ſeems to fall within the caſes deſcribed againſt the king, to force him to alter the meaſures of his government. But in that caſe it does not appear to me that I am warranted by the authorities to ſtate it to you as clear law, that the raiſing ſuch a force conſtitutes the crime of high treaſon. What the law is, and what would be the effect of the circumſtances of ſuch a force to be employed againſt the king in perſon, in the exerciſe of the higheſt functions of his royalty; what will be the effect of this, will be fit to be ſolemnly conſidered and determined when the caſe ſhall ariſe.

I go on to ſtate to you as clear, that the project of a convention, having for its ſole object a peaceable application to the wiſdom of parliament, by petition for a parliamentary reform, and leaving it to parliament to exerciſe their own diſcretion

on the ſubject, cannot of itſelf be ranked among this claſs of offences.

Gentlemen, you will now proceed on theſe ſeveral articles of inquiry. If you find that the parties that ſhall be accuſed before you have been purſuing lawful ends by lawful means, or have been only indiſcreet, or at the worſt, if criminal, that they have not been criminal to the extent of high treaſon, then ſay, the bills that ſhall be preſented to you are not true bills. But if any of thoſe perſons ſhall appear to you to have engaged in that traitorous and deteſtable conſpiracy already deſcribed, or if, without any formal deſign to go on to the full length of that conſpiracy, they have acted a part to bring about an alteration in the houſe of commons without the authority of parliament, by an uſurped power, and have taken upon themſelves the functions of legiſlation, and conſpired to ſubvert the exiſting laws and conſtitution, you will then do that which belongs to your office to do.

In the third view of the caſe of theſe perſons, if you find them involved and proceeding on a deſign to collect people together againſt the legiſlative authority of the country, for the purpoſe of overawing the parliament, but not ſuſpending its functions, and ſo compelling the king, lords and commons, in parliament aſſembled, to enact laws for holding annual parliaments, &c. perhaps it may be admitted in reſpect of the extraordinary nature, the dangerous extent, and the very criminal complexion of ſuch a conſpiracy, that this caſe, which I ſtate as new and doubtful, ſhould be put into a judicial courſe of enquiry, that it may be known whether it does or does not amount to high treaſon.

Gentlemen, I will not open to you the law of miſpriſion of treaſon, becauſe I am not aware that there any perſons committed for that offence, and becauſe I have no reaſon therefore to ſuppoſe that there will be any proſecutions preferred for that offence. The offence is, the concealing of treaſon. The puniſhment is a moſt ſevere one. I hope the neceſſity of the times will not ſtifle the humanity of the times, and compel us to put this law in execution.

Gentlemen, I now diſmiſs you, being confident that your judgment will direct you to thoſe concluſions which may clear innocent men from all ſuſpicion of guilt, bring the guilty to condign puniſhment, preſerve the life of our gracious ſovereign, ſecure the ſtability of our government, and maintain the public peace, in which comprehenſive term is included the welfare and happineſs of the people, under the protection of the laws and liberties of this kingdom.

LORD MACARTNEY'S EMBASSY *to* CHINA.

[From the Supplement to the Calcutta Gazette, received by the laſt Ships.]

Canton, October 14, 1793.

THE fond preſages we lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages that we were to derive from the embaſſy of lord Macartney, to the court of Pekin, have been much diminiſhed by the arrival here, within theſe few days, of captain Mackintoſh, of the Indoſtan, and ſome of the other gentlemen who accompanied his lordſhip to the Imperial preſence. It appears from the report of theſe gentlemen, that the wary policy of the Chineſe government is not to be eluded by the moſt ſkilful efforts of diplomatic ability or addreſs. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embaſſy of ſuch delicacy and importance, as that of which I am now ſpeaking, than lord Macartney; but, notwithſtanding his lordſhip's adroitneſs, he found it utterly impoſſible to carry either of the two points he was ſo deſirous to effect. Nay, indeed, ſo early in the train of negociation was his lordſhip convinced that the idea of obtaining permiſſion for the reſidence of an Engliſhman at the capital of China, as ambaſſador, conſul, or in any other character, was not to be accompliſhed, that he abandoned all hope of its ſucceſs after the ſecond or third interview; and, in anſwer to the application for an excluſive ſettlement for the Engliſh within the Chineſe dominions, even on a temporary grant, and ſolely for the purpoſes of trade, the Imperial negative was moſt decidedly peremptory. According to a fundamental principle in Chineſe politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held as inevitably pregnant with miſchief and ruin. And hence, while the doctrine of reform and regeneration are ſo faſhionable in the European world, the Chineſe government would conſider its political exiſtence at an end, were they to allow any encroachment, not only on their laws, but on eſtabliſhed prejudices, which with

them are held equally venerable, and poſſeſs the ſame force as poſitive ordinances. On this principle alone it is, that the emperor declined to admit a foreign reſident at the court of Pekin, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourſe with this country is at preſent, and is likely to continue in confinement.

The embaſſy was conducted to Jehor, one of the emperor's reſidences in Tartary, diſtant about forty or fifty leagues from Pekin. Thither they proceeded by eaſy ſtages, and were ſumptuouſly accommodated on the way in the emperor's palaces, of which many intervene between Pekin and Jehor.

Previous to the introduction of his lordſhip to the royal preſence, a number of preliminary circumſtances were required to be adjuſted; and ſeveral days were ſpent before all the arrangements for that purpoſe were ſatisfactorily diſpoſed of. In particular, much diſcuſſion took place about the ceremony of knocking the head againſt the ground, which was held, at firſt, as indiſpenſible. His lordſhip, however, politely, yet reſolutely reſiſted againſt compliance with this ceremony, determined, at the ſame time, in his own mind, ultimately to acquieſce, rather than occaſion any material inconvenience, far leſs to have allowed his nonacquieſcence to have ſtood in the way to defeat any of the uſeful ends he had in view. The emperor, however, ordered this ceremony to be diſpenſed with; and his lordſhip and ſuite were introduced, with hardly any other ceremonial, than is uſed at the courts of European monarchs.

Still, however, although the embaſſy has not been attended with ſucceſs in the greater objects that it had in view, we confidently expect that it will be productive of certain important advantages to the commercial concerns of the company, that will ſoon abundantly repay the trouble and expence of his lordſhip's viſit to this country. A viceroy extraordinary has been appointed by the emperor; and he is now accompanying lord Macartney on his way to this city. From his character, from the inſtructions he has received, and from the profeſſions he makes, we have every reaſon to believe that he will lay the axe at the root of thoſe evils and impoſitions that have hitherto ramified ſo luxuriantly in every direction, as to have cramped and injured every ſpecies of commercial operation.

Had the emperor aſſented to the propoſition of a Britiſh ambaſſador or reſident at Pekin, ſir George Staunton was to have remained there in that character; with an allowance of 12,000l. ſterling per annum. Lord Macartney, we underſtand, is to receive 30,000l. for the embaſſy.

The new viceroy, lord Macartney, and their reſpective ſuites, are expected to arrive here about the 20th inſtant. A numerous body of mandarines, and the principal Chineſe merchants ſet off from hence on the 11th inſt. to meet the viceroy.. To-morrow, the chief ſupercargo, Mr. Brown, attended by a ſuite, will proceed to meet the ambaſſador, for whoſe reception we are now buſily preparing. His lordſhip's ſtay here will be but ſhort, probably not exceeding fifteen or twenty days.

The preſents that have been given by the emperor are immenſe, both in point of quantity and value. They are all at this time on board the Hindoſtan. I cannot attempt to enumerate the variety of theſe preſents, but two of them are ſo ſingular, as to claim particular notice. The one is an epic poem, addreſſed to his Britannic majeſty, the compoſition of the emperor himſelf, and in his own hand-writing. It is lodged in a black wood carved box, of no great value but as an antique, to which character it has a juſt claim, having been 2000 years in the poſſeſſion of the Imperial family of China; the other preſent to which I allude is, a maſs of coſtly agate, of unequalled ſize and beauty. It has always been the practice with the emperor to hold this agate in his hand, and to fix his eyes upon it whenever he ſpoke to a mandarine or any of his miniſters, as to look upon a ſubject is conſidered as not only derogatory to the Imperial dignity, but to confer too much conſequence on the individual addreſſed.

THE THEATRE.

ON Thurſday, October 23, a new comedy, called 'THE RAGE,' was performed at the theatre royal in Covent-garden. The dramatis perſonæ are,

Gingham, Mr. Lewis; Darnley, Mr. Homan; ſir Paul Perpetual, Mr. Quick; Flaſh, Mr. Munden; ſir George Gauntlet, Mr. Middleton; the hon. Mr. Sa-

vage;

vage, Mr. Fawcett; Ready, Mr. Davenport; ſignor Cygnet, Mr. Bernard:—Clara Sedley, Mrs. Mountain; lady Sarah Savage, Mrs. Mattocks; Mrs. Darnley, Mrs. Pope.

The plot is as follows: Darnley has retired with his wife to a ſmall farm, where an old friend and brother officer of his, ſir George Gauntlet, pays him a viſit, for the ſecret purpoſe of ſeducing the affections of Mrs. Darnley.—Lady Sarah Savage and her brother, are Darnley's affluent neighbours, and Darnley ſtopping lady Sarah's horſes when they had run away with her in her phaeton, produces on her part a regard for Darnley, and ſhe and her brother invite him and his wife to Savage Houſe.—This ſuits ſir George's ſchemes, and he adviſes Darnley to accept of an aſſignation with lady Sarah, in the hope of perſuading her not to marry her uncle, ſir Paul Perpetual.—At this period, ſir Paul (who is in purſuit of a loſt child) arrives at Savage Houſe, where he is ſo tormented by Mr. Savage and his riotous friends, that after diſguiſing himſelf, and being detected in lady Sarah's dreſſing-room, inſtead of Darnley, he leaves the houſe, determined to break off the marriage.

In the third act, Gingham arrives at Bath on a viſit to his father, Mr. Fluſh, who is a modern money lender. Gingham ſo offends his father by *ſpeaking the truth*, that he is turned out of doors, and diſinherited. In his diſtreſs, he is met with by ſir Paul, who, ſwearing he is his ſon, adopts him. Gingham is then introduced to lady Sarah as her huſband, and offends her, by taking her for a man in woman's clothes. He afterward goes to ſir George Gauntlet to deliver up a bill of exchange of Mr. Darnley's to his wife, and finding ſir George offering violence to Mrs. Darnley, he fights him and is wounded. Sir George ſeeing Darnley entering, hides himſelf behind his library. Darnley ſeeing his wife binding up Gingham's arm with her handkerchief, and having been previouſly made ſuſpicious by lady Sarah, grows jealous, and charges Mrs. Darnley with falſehood. She then accuſes his friend ſir George; and Gingham, after various ſtruggles, pulls him from the library, and convinces Darnley of his wife's innocence, and his friend's villany.

In the laſt act, ſir Paul and Fluſh, who are joint guardians to Clara, diſpute about whoſe ſon ſhall marry her, and they agree to let her chooſe for herſelf. She names Gingham, and then the myſtery of the two fathers is explained. Sir Paul has lived with a girl who quarrelled with him, and married Fluſh. Four months after the marriage ſhe was delivered of a boy. Sir Paul accidentally heard of this, and conſequently claimed the child, which Fluſh, for a bribe, eaſily gives up. Gingham is then united to Clara, and ſir Paul, with great liberality, ſettles a large part of his fortune on Mr. and Mrs. Darnley.

In this comedy, Mr. Reynolds, the author, has taken a bolder flight than in any of his former productions. We do not mean merely to ſtate, that he has ſurpaſſed his former efforts; though, in ſuch an aſſertion, we ſhould be amply juſtified.—He has in fact ſoared at higher game, and, following the example of Foote, has introduced living perſonages into his ſcene. Sir Paul, or as he is called in the dialogue, *Old P.* will certainly be transferred by his auditors and readers to the next letter of the alphabet. Mr. Savage is drawn for a noble duke, who has ſought for *notoriety* by many ways beſide the patronage which he has lent to the *pugeliſtic* ſcience.

In ſignor Cygnet can be traced the muſical huſband of a certain warbling *infidelle*. Fluſh is the *eſtype* of a famous, or rather *in*-famous money-lender; and lady Savage was not pourtrayed without an eye to a noble marchioneſs, to whom the formidable ſtatute of *Scan. Mag.* forbids us more particularly to allude!

Without dwelling on the *right* of the author to meddle with theſe *auguſt* perſonages, it is our province to dwell on the *art* with which he has proſecuted the deſign.—If his pencil has not been *creative* in this inſtance, it is our duty to ſay, that he has certainly 'caught the living manners,' that he has well tranſferred his perſonages to the dramatic *canvas*, *embodied* them with a vigorous conception, and *grouped* them with ſkill and effect.

In other language, the comedy of *The Rage* will undoubtedly be read at a future day, as conveying a juſt picture of the preſent manners, and a happy, though we hope, in ſome inſtances, an exaggerated portrait of the follies of what is termed *high life!* The critic of that day will, in that view overlook ſome incidents ſtrained beyond probability, and ſome *traits* approaching to *caricature*; and the liberal cenſor of the preſent day will make a ſimilar allowance for ſome halting attempts at wit, which ſhould certainly be expunged from the dialogue, which they diſgrace.

The Prologue had nothing new. The Epi-

Epilogue had ſome happy hits at the martial *Rage* which pervades the city; but ended with ſome rather trite compariſons between the ſtate of this and a neighbouring country. In the latter, the 'Order of the Day' is ſaid to be

"*La Guerre* to-day, *la Guillotine* to-morrow."

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE,

Continued from Page 135.

THE fall of Robeſpierre and his party did not occur without ſome ſhocks, and it was once a great doubt whether the moment of his fall would not have been the moment of his triumph. The arreſt of Robeſpierre was attended with difficulty: the preſident of the convention was obliged to repeat the order ſeveral times before any one dared to obey it; but immediately that his fall was perceived to be inevitable, he was deſerted by thoſe from whom he had ſome right to expect ſupport; and in the ſeſſions of the convention after the execution of Robeſpierre and his adherents every one was eager to bring accuſations againſt him. Among the reſt, he was accuſed of projecting the execution of 60,000 perſons more, and that he every evening ſealed the fatal catalogue for the next morning's execution; that he had his creatures every where, even in the priſons, who reported to him thoſe who any way ſpoke againſt him, who were ſure to ſuffer.

It is too early yet to judge with any degree of certainty of the means which brought about the overthrow of a man who enjoyed the public favour for five years, and during the laſt fourteen months ſeemed to govern without controul; and ſuch was the force of the reputation he had obtained, that even at laſt he was not accuſed as Hebert and Danton were, who, after playing their parts, were denounced for attempting either to re-eſtabliſh the throne again, or for ſerving the coaleſced powers. In the ſeſſions wherein his arreſt was ordered and effected, his tyranny and oppreſſion were the only ſubjects of accuſation; the ſame was the caſe in the ſubſequent ſeſſions, and in the jacobin club; in all of which he was accuſed of tyrannical and ambitious views, and upon thoſe were grounded both his arreſt and execution. The latent ſprings which ſet all in motion it will require ſome time to bring to light.

Among the number of perſons ſet at liberty ſince the execution of Robeſpierre is general Santerre, who publicly thanked the convention for his enlargement.

For ſeveral days after, the attention of the convention was engaged in different diſcuſſions concerning the means of preventing, in future, the ambitious views of any individual who might hereafter aſpire, like Robeſpierre, to a kind of dictatorſhip; of preventing the neceſſary vigilance and activity of the revolutionary government from degenerating into tyranny and injuſtice; and of giving additional energy to the committees of the convention that were more immediately concerned in the operations connected with the ſafety of the ſtate. With reſpect to the latter ſubject, the convention decreed, that the committee of public welfare ſhould take the name of the committee of military and diplomatic operations.

In the mean time, it appeared, that two powerful factions divided the convention; the partizans of the late odious revolutionary government by violence and terror, who were ſupported by the jacobin club, and the advocates for moderation, who ſtill trembled at the recollection of the tyranny of Robeſpierre. In fact, the degree of moderation which now began to actuate the proceedings of the convention was ſoon conſpicuous in their conduct on the 29th of Auguſt, when Lecointre of Verſailles, in concert with Tallien, Dubois Crancé, and a few others, produced an accuſation againſt ſeven members of the committees of public ſafety; namely, Barrere, Billaud de Varennes, Collot d'Herbois, Vadier, Amar, Vouland, and David. This produced a violent commotion in the convention; and, after a very warm debate, it was decreed, by a great majority, that the charges were unfounded, and that the aſſembly ſhould paſs to the order of the day. During the evening and the following night, the matter was agitated in the clubs and ſocieties of Paris; and attempts were made to repreſent the above decree as an artifice of the majority, to get rid of the accuſation which they were afraid to meet.

The charge was contained in twenty-ſix articles, and amounted in fact to accuſing them for not having ſooner deſtroyed Robeſpierre;

Defpierre; and for having acted as the inftruments of his defpotifm. Next day, Auguft 30, an attempt was made to bring forward the fame matter again, and to hear the proofs on both fides in the face of the convention, as well for, as againft, the accufed.—After much wrangling, the convention decided that the accufation and the proofs fhould be read. The charges were then brought forward, and feparately difcuffed. Collot d'Herbois and fome of the others fpoke in their own defence; and, after much agitation, the fittings clofed with declaring the charge to be calumnious.

The effect of the whole feemed to be the eftablifhment of the power of Barrere, rather at the expence of Tallien, Lecointre, and Dubois Crancé; and a determination not to interrupt the unanimity of the convention by difputes with, or accufation of, each other.

On the 30th of Auguft, intelligence was received by the convention, of the furrender of Valenciennes; and on the 1ft of September, of Condé; the garrifons being made prifoners at war, having furrendered at the hour appointed. One thoufand emigrants, it was added, were delivered up at Valenciennes; and an immenfe ftore of ammunition, artillery, and provifions taken poffeffion of, in both places.—This intelligence was received from Lifle, by the telegraphe, in two hours (*See page* 281) and the convention immediately decreed, that an anfwer fhould be returned, by the fame mode of conveyance, declaring that the army of the north had continued to deferve well of their country, and that the name of *Condé* fhould be changed to that of *Nord Libre*.

On the 10th of September, the convention was informed that as Tallien was about to enter his own houfe, an aflaffin fired a piftol at him, which penetrated his fhoulder, and he fell, that the aflaffin efcaped; that the repreſentative of the people had been immediately conveyed into his own apartment; and that the wound would not be of any dangerous conſequence. The obſervations on this aſſaſſination led to a tumultuous diſcuſſion of the jacobin club, at whoſe ſittings, it was aſſerted, the convention had been threatened. Some members went ſo far as even to ſuggeſt the neceſſity of ſuppreſſing that ſociety; but the great majority of the convention appeared eager to diſavow any ſuch idea. At length it was moved that the opinion of the convention ſhould be ſuſpended relative to the jacobins, until they ſhould hear the report to be made upon the political ſituation of France. Merlin, of Thionville, demanded alſo, 'That all which had been ſaid ſhould be ſent to the committees charged with preparing the report.' But, ſaid he, 'let the report be made ſpeedily, and, above all, let it turn upon theſe three queſtions:—*Whence come we? Where are we? Whither go we?*'

The propoſition of Merlin and the previous ſpeaker were adopted; and a report of the health of Tallien was ordered to be read every day, and inſerted in the bulletin.

On the 11th ult. a detail of the intended maſſacre of the Nantois was preſented to the convention. It excited the greateſt indignation. By this detail it appears, that an order had been given, that 132 priſoners at Nantes ſhould be ſent to Paris. Previouſly to their departure from Nantes the following order was given:

'In the name of the revolutionary committee of Nantes. The temporary commandant at Nantes is required to furniſh 300 ſoldiers, half of which number is to be detached to the houſe of Boaſſay, to take charge of the priſoners named in the incloſed liſt, to tie them two and two, and to convey them to the port of Eperoniere. The remainder of the troops are to go to St. Claires, and to remove alſo from that priſon to Eperoniere all the perſons named in the incloſed liſt. When they are arrived at Eperoniere, all thoſe confined in that houſe of arreſt are to be ſhot without reſerve, in ſuch a manner as the commandant ſhall think proper.

(Signed) J. J. GOULEN;
M. GRANDMAISON,
J. B. MAINGUET.

It does not appear that this deteſtable order was executed. Nevertheleſs the unhappy priſoners experienced ſuch ill treatment, by order of the revolutionary committee, that out of 132 only 94 arrived at Paris.

The convention, after having heard the report, ordered the perſons who had ſigned the order to be arreſted and ſent to priſon. An hour after the iſſuing this order the convention were informed that Goulen, Grandmaiſon, and Mainguet, had been committed to the Conciergerie.

In the ſeſſion of the 14th, a member propoſed the abolition of all nicknames, ſuch as the Mountain, the Plain, the Moderates, the Jacobins, the Muſcadins, &c. and that each member of the convention ſhould

ſhould, within a month, give an exact account of his fortune and reſources, or his gains and loſſes, ſince 1789, together with a ſhort account of what he may have done in favour of the revolution. This, although warmly applauded by the aſſembly, was afterward rejected.

In the ſeſſions of the 14th, Barrere ſpoke in favour of the popular ſocieties, which he called the advanced guard of liberty, and ſaid the day they were deſtroyed would be the day of deſtruction to the national convention. He quoted from the Moniteur that part of the tranſactions of the Britiſh parliament in which the Engliſh miniſters had been charged with having avowed their intentions of the war to be the extermination of the preſen government of France; to which Pitt had anſwered, that *the true and only object was the deſtruction of the jacobin ſyſtem.*

In the ſeſſions of the 18th, much was ſaid of a diſcovery of a conſpiracy in the diſtrict of Tamargue, the chiefs of which were in the mountains; that they collected all the deſerters from the army, and propoſed to proclaim Louis the ſeventeenth in October next; but that by the vigilance of the magiſtrates tranquillity was reſtored.

In the ſame ſeſſions it was ſaid, that much pains were taken to raiſe the people againſt the convention, and that it had been publicly ſaid in the jacobin club, that there are in the convention men unworthy to ſit in it; and it was propoſed that thoſe who ſaid ſo ſhould point them out; but theſe and other motions tending to ſow diſcord were referred to the different committees.

In the mean time, the armies of France appear to be every where victorious. On the ſide of Spain, they have penetrated through the weſtern Pyrenees into the province of Biſcay, and taken the towns of Fontarabia, St. Sebaſtian, and Toleſa. In the eaſtern Pyrenees, they have retaken from the Spaniards the fortreſs of Bellegard, in Rouſſellon (the department of the eaſtern Pyrenees) and thus ſecured an eaſy entrance into Catalonia. On the frontiers of the empire, they have taken poſſeſſion of Treves, Cologne, &c. They have beat the Auſtrian general Clairfayt, in two bloody battles, and obliged him to retreat, and to leave Maeſtricht uncovered. And toward Holland, they have taken Sluys, Crevecœur, and Bois-le-Duc, obliged the army of the duke of York to fall back upon Nimeguen; and were preparing to attack the Bommel iſland, one of the principal paſſes into Holland.

[To be continued.]

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

The NETHERLANDS.

Aix-la-Chapelle, September 20.

THE different corps of the French army on the Maeze, ſtrengthened by the reinforcements they had received, made repeated attacks from the 17th, upon the Auſtrian poſts which guarded the left ſide of that river, and the right ſide of the Ourte. The attacks of the 17th, upon the Auſtrians before Maeſtricht, and toward Viſé and Fouron le Comte, did not ſucceed; but that was not the caſe with thoſe made upon the poſitions of generals Latour and Alvinzy on the Ourte. The enemy were conſtantly ſupplied with freſh troops, by which means their ſuperiority almoſt entirely deſtroyed the left wing of the Auſtrian forces; and all the regiments which compoſed it, particularly that of Beaulieu ſuffered exceedingly, and moſt of the officers were either killed, wounded, or made priſoners; three companies of the new-raiſed regiment of the arch-duke Charles were cut to pieces, the reſt made priſoners; the regiment of Murray, one battalion of Kinſky, one of the emperor, two battalions of the troops of Saltzbourg, the emperor's regiment of dragoons, and two diviſions of that of the arch-duke Leopold, alſo ſuffered; and as the wing was completely routed, and the retreat was made in diſorder, of courſe they loſt their artillery. The French were poſted on the Ourte, in ſeveral columns, toward Spa and Vervieres. The action was at Theux. The French were ſeveral times repulſed with great loſs, and obliged to fall back to the rivulet of Embleve; but having found means to paſs the Imperial poſts, they took it in the rear, and that corps, which was not more than 7000 ſtrong againſt 30,000 French (and in a manner cut off) was almoſt entirely deſtroyed or diſperſed. Among other advantages of which the enemy availed themſelves, they acquired a perfect knowledge of the poſition of the Auſtrians by means of a balloon, which they elevated during the action, and in the gondola of which

were two able officers, who traced the ſituation and movements of the Auſtrians, and let down their obſervations to their colleagues in the French army.

One of the conſequences of the defeat abovementioned was, that the advantageous poſt of the Chartreuſe, near Liege, being abſolutely turned and taken in the rear, was obliged to be evacuated.

General Clairfayt ſent thirteen battalions from the centre to reinforce the left wing, which was again attacked this day, and the heavy cannonading which we now hear comes from that way.

The French generals had orders to carry the Auſtrians poſts, particularly that of the Chartreuſe at Liege, coſt what it would.

Nimeguen, Sept. 25. The Auſtrian troops in the environs of Maeſtricht, after having thrown a corps of about 10,000 men into that town for its defence, under the orders of general Kray, on the 20th inſtant, began to move back toward Herve. Since their retreat from Liege, the French have advanced to Stavelot, Malmedi, Spa, &c. and have taken poſſeſſion of thoſe towns, as well as of the adjacent country.

Hague, Sept. 28. All the letters from Aix-la-Chapelle, Herve, and Cologne, are filled with the particulars of the action of the 18th, in which the French forced the poſition of the Auſtrians above Liege, and of the conſequence of that day, which obliges general Clairfayt to fall back to Juliers.

Duſſeldorp, October 6. General Clairfayt has experienced another defeat. He had placed his centre before Juliers; his right extended along the left bank of the Roer, on the ſide of Ruremonde, and his left was ſupported by Duren, having the Roer behind his whole line. Before his centre was the plain of Aldenhoven, bordered on every ſide by ſmall hills; and at the extremity of the plain was a very large paſſage, through which the enemy muſt penetrate before they could attack the grand body. On the hills were redoubts at equal diſtances, furniſhed with artillery, which took the enemy in flank, making a croſs fire. The French, on their ſide, had planted cannon at the extremity of the hills, on the ſide of the paſſage, to fire upon ſuch of their own troops as might fall back, or might endeavour to turn about, to avoid the fire of the redoubts.

The French advanced with their uſual intrepidity and audacity. They were mowed down by the artillery placed on the hills to the right and left, and the batteries raiſed by our army in front. During the three hours that their attack laſted they loſt a dreadful number of men, while the Auſtrian army remained firm, and experienced ſcarcely any loſs. It might have remained ſo, without fear of being forced, and certain of ſeeing the enemy cover the plain with their dead, before they could make any impreſſion on it; but general Clairfayt was informed that his two wings had not made the expected reſiſtance, that they were forced, and that he was in danger of being turned and overpowered by the two corps that had routed them. He then made his retreat to Cologne in the beſt order, with the loſs of only 700 men. At the departure of the courier it was not known whither the left wing had retreated.

HOLLAND.

The Hague, October 5. Crevecœur, a fort, two leagues from Bois-le-duc, has ſurrendered, and the garriſon, conſiſting of 250 men, are not to ſerve againſt France for a year and ſix weeks.

We are told, that the prince Stadtholder has been requeſted to examine into the conduct of colonel Tlebael, commandant of Crevecœur, as ſpeedily and rigorouſly as poſſible.

The ſtates of Holland and Weſt Frieſland have ordered public prayers to be offered every fortnight for the protection of the ſeven United Provinces.

Rotterdam, October 12. Yeſterday the news reached us of the ſurrender of Bois-le-Duc to the French, on Thurſday laſt; which, with the capture of Crevecœur, and fort St. André, which had been previouſly evacuated, that the artillery and ſtores in it might not fall into the hands of the enemy, gives them an uninterrupted poſſeſſion of the whole barony of Bois-le-Duc; opens to them the paſſage of the Maeſe; and facilitates their irruption into the province of Nimeguen.

THE EMPIRE.

Mentz, September 21. We receive this moment the certain and important intelligence, that the attack of field marſhal Moellendorff on Kaiſerſlautern has fully ſucceeded. The Pruſſians yeſterday morning rendered themſelves maſters of that place, made 3000 priſoners, and took 6 pieces of cannon.

Kayſerſlautern, Sept. 21. After a very bloody battle fought yeſterday, in which the French were completely beaten, the allied troops entered this town. The

enemy had 2000 men killed; 3000 taken priſoners, and left five pieces of cannon. Our loſs was by no means conſiderable. Prince Hohenlohe commanded the allied armies.

Poland and Prussia.

Vienna, Sept. 14. On the 26th and 28th ult. the Pruſſians made an attack on the Poliſh camp at Powaſki, which was commanded by the general prince Poniatowſki. The Poles received them with the bravery of lions, but were for a time under ſome diſadvantages, till Koſciuſko coming up, by way of Bielany, with a ſtrong reinforcement, made the Pruſſians pay dear for what they at firſt gained. Their loſs was conſiderable; prince Poniatowſki was wounded The priſoners, among whom was a general, ſome colonels, and other officers, were carried into Warſaw in triumph.

The Poles acknowledge the entrance of prince Repnin into Lithuania, and his having taken Wilna, after an action in which the patriots loſt 6000 men. Wilna, however, is a defenceleſs place, and the laſt advices left it in the poſſeſſion of the Poles.

The Poles have alſo been victorious over the Auſtrians at Byki. Theſe laſt formed a junction with the Ruſſians, in order to proceed to Warſaw, from which they were not far diſtant; but general Jacinſki, with a ſtrong force, found means to ſurpriſe and beat them, forcing them to repaſs the Wiepre, which, after traverſing the palatinate of Belzk, falls into the Viſtula. The Auſtrians, for ſafety, threw themſelves, according to the Poliſh accounts, into the Caſtle-ward of Lubaczew.

The inſurrection throughout Poland becomes very ſerious, and promiſes to be univerſal; and, on our part, fears are entertained for the province of Gallicia, now deſtitute of troops, and filled with turbulent and diſcontented perſons.

Warſaw, Sept. 12. It appears that the ſudden retreat of the king of Pruſſia was owing, in a great meaſure, to the repulſe he met with on the 28th of Auguſt, in attempting to get poſſeſſion of the wood and batteries of Powaſki. The attack was made by the Pruſſians in great force againſt the diviſion of prince Joſeph Poniatowſki, commanded that day by general Dabrowſki, and after an action of 14 hours, in which the inhabitants of this city ſhared the danger and glory with the regulars, the enemy were repulſed, with the loſs of ſeveral batteries, and a great number of men. The retreat of the Pruſſian army was ſo precipitate, that they had not time to carry off their equipeges, or to bury their dead. They left at Raſczyn, three miles diſtant from Warſaw, all their ſick and wounded.

Corunna, October 1. The important fortreſs of Bellegarde ſurrendered by capitulation to the French arms on the 28th ult. The garriſon conſiſted of 6000 men. This conqueſt opens a paſſage for the enemy into Catalonia, one of the moſt conſiderable provinces of Spain, the capital of which is Barcelona.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

Whitehall, October 26, 1794.

A Diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, was this day received from his royal highneſs the duke of York, by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Head Quarters, Nimeguen,
Sir, Oct. 20, 1794.

Yeſterday morning the enemy attacked the whole of the advanced poſts of my right wing, in very great force, particularly that of Druſin, which was defended by the 37th regiment, and that of Appelthern, where the prince of Rohan's light battalion was poſted. Nothing could exceed the gallantry with which the whole of the troops on the advanced poſts, (particularly thoſe two corps) behaved; but at laſt the poſt on the left of the 37th regiment, which was occupied by a detachment of Rohan huſſars, having been forced, major Hope, who commanded the 37th, and who diſtinguiſhed himſelf exceedingly, was obliged to retreat upon the dyke along the Waal, which he continued for ſome time, without being much annoyed by the enemy. Unfortunately, however, a ſtrong body of the enemy's huſſars being miſtaken for the corps of Rohan, the regiment allowed them to come upon them unmoleſted, when the huſſars immediately attacked, and the narrowneſs of the dyke, which, on every other occaſion, muſt have afforded a ſecurity to the infantry, in this inſtance acted againſt them, as they were driven off it by the enemy's charge, and, I am ſorry to ſay, have ſuffered very conſiderably.

As

As they were upon the advanced posts, I have not as yet received an exact return of their loss; but I understand that captains Baird, Hendley and Duff, lieutenants Mitchell, Thompson, Colquhoun and Murray, with the quarter-master, Mr. Duxall, were made prisoners; of which number captain Duff, lieutenants Mitchell and Colquhoun, are wounded. All the prisoners who were taken agreed in the intelligence that the enemy had brought over 30,000 men; and at the same time I received the report that a very considerable body of them, having passed the Meuse between Ruremonde and Venlo, were advancing upon my left flank, and had already taken possession of Cleves.

Under these circumstances, (never having intended to risk an action in my present position) which I only kept in order to preserve a communication with Graves, and to cover the reparations which were intended to have been made to the fortifications of this place, I determined to pass the Waal, and to take up the different cantonments, which were already marked out for the defence of the river, leaving general Walmoden, with a corps to cover the town.

Part of the troops began their march yesterday evening, and the remainder this morning, without any molestation from the enemy. I am, &c.

FREDERICK.

P. S. I am sorry to add, that lieutenant Wadman, of the light infantry of the 37th regiment, who was upon picquet, and had distinguished himself by his intrepidity and prudence, is also dangerously wounded, and was brought in the evening to this town.

Right hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

SEPTEMBER 27.

YEsterday 15 prisoners were tried at the Old Bailey, seven of whom were convicted of felonies, two of misdemeanors, and six acquitted.

The same day sentence was passed, when Anthony Purchase, Richard Warnsbeck, Thomas Biggett, Henry Creamer, Thomas Bailey, Samuel Royal, Patrick Murphy, Joseph Strutt, Francis Ross, John Caterpodi, and William Mollineux, received judgment of death for the offences whereof they stand severally convicted; 25 were ordered to be transported for the term of seven years beyond the seas; nine to be imprisoned in Newgate; 17 in the house of correction at Clerkenwell; three to be publicly whipped, and one privately. —John Sitterson, James Semple, William Wood, Thomas Doyle, and Esther Spencer, convicts who had been respited during his majesty's pleasure, received sentence to be transported to the eastern coast of New South Wales, or some one or other of the islands adjacent, for and during their natural lives. Elisabeth Thomas and John Downes, two other respites, for the term of seven years.

The sessions being ended, the court was adjourned until the 4th of October.

SEPTEMBER 28.

This day, in consequence of a warrant issued by the duke of Portland, Townsend and Jealous, belonging to the Public Office in Bow-street, apprehended John Pierce La Maitre, and William Higgins, on a charge of having concerted a plan to assassinate our most gracious sovereign.—*As these persons, as well as some others, were, after several subsequent examinations, committed for trial, when the real particulars of this plot (if such a plot there was) will be judicially developed, we deem it improper, at present, to enter into a recital of them.*

SEPTEMBER 29.

This day, a common hall was held at Guildhall for the choice of lord mayor, when Thomas Skinner, esq. was chosen, being the next in rotation to Mr. alderman Watson, now abroad in the service of his country.

Windsor, Sept. 27. Their majesties and their royal highnesses the princesses set out from Gloucester-lodge, Weymouth, at five o'clock this morning, and arrived here, at half past six in the afternoon, in perfect health. *Lond. Gaz.*

OCTOBER 1.

The parliament, which was to have met on Tuesday the 4th of November, was this day further prorogued to Tuesday the 25th of November.

OCTOBER 7.

Yesterday, the court, appointed by special commission, for the trial of certain persons, on charges of high treason, met this day, at the sessions-house, Clerkenwell, when the grand jury found a true bill, which included the following persons, some of whom are still at large:—Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, John Augustus Bonney, Steward Kydd, Jeremiah Joyce, Thomas Wardel, Thomas

Holcroft, John Richter, Matthew Moore, John Thelwall, Richard Hodgſon, and John Baxter.

Againſt John Lovat no bill was found.

This day a bill was found againſt John Martin, an attorney, on the ſame charge.

OCTOBER 8.

An action was tried at Cheſter aſſizes, under the late act for the benefit of Friendly Societies, againſt a perſon who had 5l. belonging to a ſociety in the year 1777, on his promiſſory note, which he refuſed to pay. The jury gave the plaintiff (the ſtewards, a verdict for 5l. with intereſt at five per cent.

OCTOBER 9.

A bill of indictment was this day found againſt John Hillier, for high treaſon.

OCTOBER 20.

The ſociety of arts at Paris have diſcovered a method of producing fixed alcali, or pot-aſh from the horſe-cheſnut tree. A decree was in conſequence paſſed on the 12th ult. ordering all the citizens to ſtore the fruit of the horſe cheſnut tree throughout the whole republic.

OCTOBER 11.

Yeſterday a meſſenger was ſent off from the duke of Portland's office to Edinburgh, with an order to remit that part of Watt's and Downie's ſentence which relates to their being quartered and their bowels thrown in their faces. *See page 228.*

Bath, October 10. Yeſterday, at the Quarter-ſeſſions for this city, Benjamin Bull was convicted for diſperſing ſeditious pamphlets entitled 'Rights of Man.' He was ſentenced to one year's impriſonment, and to find ſecurities for good behaviour.

OCTOBER 18.

The grand jury found a bill againſt Philip Franklow for high treaſon.

Edinburgh, October 16. Daniel Downie has been reſpited, during his majeſty's pleaſure; but yeſterday, at two o'clock, Robert Watt was brought down from the caſtle, in a hurdle, with the executioner, drawn by a white horſe, and attended on foot by the two junior bailies (aldermen), the ſheriff, ſheriff ſubſtitute, and about 40 conſtables, but no military guard; as alſo the rev. doctor Baird and Mr. J. Robertſon; the multitude as they came down the Caſtle Hill, at the Lawn-market, falling back in the moſt reſpectful manner. He was attended by the ſheriffs, the two bailies, and two clergymen, on the ſcaffold, where the time was ſpent in prayer till three o'clock, when, after praying alone for ſeven or eight minutes, he made the ſignal, and was launched into eternity. Nothing could exceed the reſpectful ſilence of the populace, and there was during the whole day the greateſt decency and decorum.

OCTOBER 25.

This day the following perſons, viz. Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, Thomas Auguſtus Bonney, Steward, Kydd, Jeremiah Joyce, Thomas Wardle, Thomas Holcroft, John Thelwall, John Richter, and John Baxter, were put to the bar of the Seſſions Houſe, in order to be arraigned for high treaſon, purſuant to the bills found by the grand jury againſt them.—They ſeverally pleaded *Not guilty*; and Mr. Tooke, and others, having alleged, that by their ſudden removal from the Tower, they had loſt the opportunity of a day in conſulting with their counſel, and otherwiſe preparing for their defence, the trials were poſtponed to Tueſday the 28th. The priſoners, moreover, having requeſted to be tried ſeparately, it was ſettled that the trial of Mr. Hardy ſhould be the firſt, and the others to follow as they are named in the indictment.

OCTOBER 27.

The ſeſſions of Oyer and Terminer, or gaol delivery of Newgate, which was to have commenced at the Seſſions Houſe in the Old Bailey on Wedneſday next, is obliged to be poſtponed to December, on account of the trials of the ſtate priſoners.

Thurſday laſt the election of one of the 16 Scots peers (vacant by the death of lord Elphinſtone) came on at Holyrood-houſe, Edinburgh, when the earl of Hopetoun was choſen without oppoſition.

Admiralty-office, October 27.

Copy of a Letter from Sir Edward Pellew, Captain of his Majeſty's Ship the Arethuſa, to Mr. Stephens, dated off the Start, the 24th Inſtant.

Sir,

I beg you will be pleaſed to inform their lordſhips, that I ſailed, with the ſhips under my command, as per margin*, agreeable to their orders, on Sunday morning the 19th, from Cawſand Bay, and the wind having given me the opportunity, on the following evening I ſhaped a courſe for Uſhant, with the hope of falling in with any ſhips which might leave the port of Breſt on the commencement of the eaſterly wind; the ſucceſs of this intention affords me the pleaſure of begging you to acquaint my lords commiſſioners, that, at day-break in the morning of the 21ſt, Uſhant bearing eaſt about eight or ten leagues, we had the good fortune to

* Arethuſa, Artois, Diamond and Galatea.

fall in with the French national frigate La Revolutionnaire, to which the whole of the ſquadron gave chace. The advantage of being to windward permitted our cutting her off from the land; and the ſuperior ſailing of the Artois afforded to captain Nagle the happy opportunity of diſtinguiſhing himſelf by a well-conducted action of forty minutes, when La Revolutionnaire ſtruck her colours to his majeſty's ſhip Artois, which ſhe was induced to do by the near approach of the reſt of the ſquadron; and perceiving the Diamond in the act of taking a poſition under her ſtern to rake her, the ſhip's company refuſed to defend her any longer. She had ſcarcely ſurrendered when the breakers of the Saints were diſcovered ahead, although very hazy weather.

The diſtreſſed and crippled ſtate of the enemy allows me the opportunity of ſaying, that her reſiſtance could have been of no avail, had the Artois been alone; and if an officer of nearly the ſame ſtanding may be permitted, without preſumption, to offer his ſentiments on the conduct of another, I ſhould not confine myſelf in my expreſſions of approbation on the behaviour of captain Nagle; and I have much pleaſure in adding, that he ſpeaks in the higheſt terms of the gallantry and good conduct of his officers and ſhip's company, lamenting, as we all do, the loſs of a very gallant and worthy officer, in lieutenant Craigy, of the marines, who, with two men killed, and five wounded, are the ſufferers on this occaſion.

La Revolutionnaire is a remarkable fine new frigate, moſt completely fitted, and of large dimenſions, being 159 feet long, and 41 feet 7 inches wide, built at Havre de Grace, and never before at ſea. She ſailed eight days ſince on her way to Breſt, and was commanded by citizen Thevenard, mounting 44 guns *, 28 on her main deck, and 16 on her quarter deck and forecaſtle, and manned with 330 men, eight of whom were killed, and five wounded; among the latter is her captain, ſlightly.

Lieutenant Pellew, who will have the honour to deliver this letter to their lordſhips, will be able to give any farther information required; and will inform their lordſhips of my intention of going to Falmouth to land the priſoners, who have the ſmallpox among them. I have the honour to be, &c.

EDWARD PELLEW.

AMERICA.

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-governor Simcoe, to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Navyhall, Aug. 30, 1794.

I take the opportunity of ſending this diſpatch by means of Mr. Hammond, to whom I loſe no time in giving information of the important event, that Mr. Wayne, with the army of the United States, penetrated to the fort at Miamis, which he ſummoned to ſurrender; and upon major Campbell's refuſal, at preſent, appears to have retreated.

It is impoſſible to expreſs the ſenſe I entertain of major Campbell's moſt wiſe, firm, and temperate conduct in his very peculiar and difficult ſituation: ſuch notice as the military part of it highly deſerves, I preſume will be offered to you by lord Dorcheſter, who muſt be fully competent to judge of its merit; but I ſhould do injuſtice to myſelf did I not ſtate to you, ſir, my humble and earneſt hope that the conduct of this gentleman, which in ſubſtance may have prevented the greateſt miſeries to the province under my government, and who, in his manner and language, has, in a very trying ſituation, moſt nobly ſupported the national character, will recommend him to your attention, and be found worthy of his majeſty's approbation.—*Lond. Gaz.*

BIRTHS.

LADY of ſir John D'Oyley, bart. a ſon.

Counteſs of Northeſk, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

CAptain Williams, of the foot-guards, to the counteſs of Barrymore.

Captain Gill, of the life-guards, to lady Harriot Fleming.

Lord Dynevor, to the hon. Harriot Townſhend, daughter of viſcount Sydney.

DEATHS.

LIeutenant-general Henry Smith, colonel commandant of the marines.

Hon. rear admiral William Clement Finch, M. P. for Surry.

Hon. Barbara Grey, ſiſter to lord Grey de Wilton.

Sir Thomas Clavering, bart.

Lady Helen Douglas, relict of the late admiral ſir James Douglas, and aunt to the earl of Glaſgow.

Richard Robinſon, lord Rokeby, D. D. and archbiſhop of Armagh.

* 28 eighteen-pounders; 12 nine ditto, and 4 forty-two ditto.

Counteſs

Countess of Howth.

Rev. sir Edward Castleton, bart. vicar of Thornham, Norfolk.

PROMOTIONS.

William Lindsay, esq.—Governor of Jamaica.

Colonels Edmund Fanning; Francis R. Humphreys, of the late 79th foot; John Hughes, Horatio Sprv, William Souter, and Harri: Innes, of the marines; William Fawcett, inspector-general of recruits in Ireland; Robert Donkin, of the late garrison battalion; James Balfour, of the 77th foot; James Francis Perkins, of the marines; Norman Macleod, of the 73d foot; Alexander Campbell, of the late 95th foot; Francis D'Oyly, of the 1st foot-guards; William Crosbie, of the 89th foot; sir James Duff, knt. of the 1st foot-guards; Henry lord Mulgrave, of the 31st foot; Grice Blackney, of the 34th dragoons; Paulus Æ. Irving, of the 47th foot; John Small, lieutenant-governor of Guernsey; George Harris, of the 76th foot; Richard Vyse, of the 1st dragoon guards; William lord Cathcart, of the 29th foot; Maurice Wemyss, of the marines; Robert Mason Lewis, captain of Carisbrooke-castle; Banastre Tarleton, of the late American dragoons; sir Hew Dalrymple, knt. of the 1st foot-guards; Gordon Forbes, of the 105th foot; Andrew Gordon, of the 26th foot; John Floyd, of the 19th dragoons; Oliver de Lancey, barrack-master-general; John Graves Simcoe, of the queen's rangers; Robert Johnstone, of the 3d foot-guards; and James Henry Craig, of the 16th foot—Major-generals.

Major-general Adam Williamson—Governor of that part of St. Domingo which belongs to his majesty.

Earl of Balcarres—Lieutenant-governor of Jamaica.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

SEPTEMBER 27.

John Baptist Davallon, of Lawrence-Pountney-lane, Cannon-street, factor.

John Hope, of Great Bolton, in Lancashire, chapman.

Samuel Sedgley Hayley, of Birmingham, button-maker.

John Jones, of Holborn-hill, woollen-draper.

William Benham, of Langley-street, Long-acre, tailor.

John Scott, David Scott, and John Thompson, of Blackburn, in Lancashire, liquor-merchants.

Thomas Cave, of Tokenhouse-yard, merchant.

John Kempson, of Upton Old, in Worcestershire, dealer.

Mary White, of Clapham, in Surry, grocer.

SEPTEMBER 30.

Samuel Garthwaite, of East-street, Walworth, in Surry, victualler.

Robert Shepherd, of Radstock, Somersetshire, miller.

William Blastock, of Aldermanbury, wholesale hoser.

William Nevill, of New Alresford, Hants, butcher.

Mary Edgar, of Tothill-street, Westminster, grocer.

OCTOBER 4.

Francis Hilliard, of Leek, in Staffordshire, bookseller.

William Alexander Fraser, of Dowgate-hill, ironmonger.

John Hastingden, of Manchester, bookseller.

Richard James the younger, of Reading, in Berks, brasier.

Harriot Friedeberg, and Joseph Friedeberg, of Mansell-street, Goodman's-fields, jewellers.

William Foxall, of Park-lane, St. George, Hanover-square, farrier.

Joseph Hart, and William Warham, of Coventry-street, Piccadilly, goldsmiths.

John Lawrence Wynn, of New Alresford, in Hants, watch-maker.

Jeremiah Taylor, and Robert Parkinson, of Austwich, in Yorkshire, cotton-manufacturers.

David Morley, otherwise David Boyd Morley, of Hartoft, in Yorkshire, apothecary.

Thomas Pope the elder, of Bristol, builder.

OCTOBER 7.

John Barker, and James Barker, of East Retford, in Nottinghamshire, merchants.

Charles Lavell Gould, of Bartley Regis, in Hants, dealer in horses.

Rees Tasker, of Swansea, in Glamorganshire, dealer.

James Nash, of Chipping Sudbury, in Gloucestershire, draper.

OCTOBER 11.

Edward Morris, of Finch-lane, eating-house-keeper.

Mary Vickers, and Jane Vickers, of Whitchurch, in Salop, haberdashers.

Charles Chowles, of North Audley-street, upholder,

John

John Mawley, of George-ſtreet, Blackfriars-road, Surry, money-ſcrivener.

OCTOBER 14.

John Copley, of Edmonton, builder.

Samuel Akeroyd, Jonathan Hainſworth and John Binns, of Halifax, in Yorkſhire, carpet-manufacturers.

William Fry, of Bury-court, St. Mary Axe, merchant.

OCTOBER 18.

Suſannah Williams, of Paradiſe-buildings, Lambeth, Surry, haberdaſher.

George Tod, of Orchard-ſtreet, Portman-ſquare, carpenter.

John Binns, of Halifax, in Yorkſhire, hoſier.

Jonathan Hainſworth, of Halifax, in Yorkſhire, timber-merchant.

Francis Kilvert, of Bath, coachmaker.

Thomas Horrabin, of Liverpool, merchant.

Charle Blackford, of Alvechurch, in Worceſterſhire, baker.

OCTOBER 21.

Thomas Lilly, of Bath, money-ſcrivener.

Nathan Goddard, of Kingſton-upon-Thames, Surry, ſhopkeeper.

OCTOBER 25.

George Lloyd, and Mary Bradſhaw, of Wormwood-ſtreet, London, hoſiers.

Thomas Humble, and Joſhua Henderſon, of the Strand, cabinet-makers.

Alexander Weatherly, of Crown and Sceptre court, Weſtminſter, taylor.

Richard Scholefield, of Batley, Yorkſhire, maltſter.

James Aſpin, of Margate, in Kent, linen-draper.

Robert Davis, of Drury-lane, cheeſemonger.

William Coleſby, of Birmingham, factor.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

NEW Annual Regiſter for 1793, 8s. boards.

Walker's Treatiſe on Magnetiſm, 8vo. 6s.

Falconbridge's (Anna) Two Voyages to Sierra Leone, 12mo. 5s.

Ivey Caſtle, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Weird Siſters, 3 vol. 12mo. 10s. 6d.

The Jew, a Comedy, 2s. 6d.

Lodoiſka, an Opera, 1s. 6d.

Wolſtonecraft's View of the French Revolution, vol. 1, 8vo. 7s. boards.

Peacock's Conſiderations on the Houſe of Commons, and on Parliamentary Reform, 2s.

Heigho for a Huſband, a Comedy, 2s. 6d.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN.

October 18, 1794.

By the Standard Wincheſter Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	53	10	37	3	34	3	25	0
Surry	51	10	37	6	33	6	25	4
Hertford	49	6	39	0	33	10	22	11
Bedford	47	4	34	4	31	3	22	7
Huntingdon	45	0	—	—	30	0	19	4
Northampton	48	0	36	0	29	8	21	0
Rutland	50	0	34	0	32	0	21	0
Leiceſter	54	7	—	—	34	4	24	3
Nottingham	55	11	41	8	39	0	24	6
Derby	55	3	—	—	40	6	25	0
Stafford	54	4	—	—	38	7	23	4
Salop	51	10	39	10	33	9	20	10
Hereford	53	0	43	7	37	3	23	5
Worceſter	57	11	—	—	35	1	27	10
Warwick	58	9	—	—	40	4	29	1
Wilts	51	8	—	—	35	8	25	6
Berks	52	10	47	0	32	4	25	9
Oxford	53	4	—	—	32	0	25	8
Bucks	48	8	—	—	38	6	24	2
Brecon	57	7	44	10	32	8	16	0
Montgomery	46	8	30	10	26	11	16	8
Radnor	58	8	—	—	32	6	21	4

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	50	0	36	0	33	8	24	8
Kent	50	6	35	0	29	8	22	11
Suſſex	48	7	—	—	31	9	29	0
Suffolk	49	9	33	10	32	4	23	0
Cambridge	45	7	29	4	28	3	10	6
Norfolk	47	9	30	7	29	2	18	11
Lincoln	49	3	30	9	31	11	19	7
York	47	6	38	2	30	11	19	6
Durham	44	9	—	—	—	—	18	6
Northumberland	42	0	30	4	25	11	17	6
Cumberland	51	10	40	0	28	5	17	7
Weſtmorland	53	6	42	0	38	0	19	11
Lancaſter	49	9	—	—	40	0	21	6
Cheſter	45	9	—	—	33	9	21	3
Flint	47	9	—	—	—	—	19	8
Denbigh	42	8	—	—	38	3	16	5
Angleſea	50	6	—	—	30	0	15	6
Carnarvon	48	8	40	0	32	0	13	8
Merioneth	56	1	45	2	29	6	16	0
Cardigan	48	1	33	4	24	0	14	0
Pembroke	41	7	—	—	29	10	12	10
Carmarthen	50	2	—	—	27	2	13	4
Glamorgan	54	2	—	—	28	0	18	2
Glouceſter	53	4	—	—	34	5	24	8
Somerſet	55	6	—	—	32	5	17	10
Monmouth	55	11	—	—	37	5	—	—
Devon	55	11	—	—	28	6	19	6
Cornwall	55	0	—	—	26	11	18	4
Dorſet	54	5	—	—	31	5	25	7
Hants	50	8	—	—	32	11	26	4

Peck Loaf, 1s. 7d.

PRICES of STOCKS, from SEPTEMBER 27, to OCTOBER 28, 1794, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock. shut.	3 per C. reduced. shut.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols. shut.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans. shut.	Short Ans. shut.	India Stock.	India Bonds. 16s. pr.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann. shut.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot. Tic.
27			64½a½		100 ⅛								1⅞ dif.	19 13 0
29														
30	158 ¾		65a64½		100 ¼				14				1 ⅞	19 14 6
1	157 ¾		64½a½	82 ⅞	100 ⅛			191 ½	14				2	19 12 0
2	157 ¼		64½a½	82 ⅝	100 ⅛			190 ½	13				1 ⅞	19 11 0
3	157 ¼	64 ½	64½a⅝		100 ⅛								1 ⅞	
4	157 ⅛		64½a⅝	82 ½	100 ⅛				12				1 ⅞	
6	156 ⅞		64½a½		100 ⅛			190 ½	11				1 ⅞	19 12 0
7	156 ⅞		64½a½	82 ½	100 ⅛			190	11				2	19 10 6
8	156 ¼		64½a½	82 ½	100 ⅛			188 ½	10				2	19 10 6
9	156		64½a½	82 ½	100 ⅛			189 ½					2	19 11 0
10	155 ⅞	65	64½a½	82 ½	100 ⅛			189	8				2	19 11 0
11	154 ⅞		64½a½	82 ⅛	100			189 ½	6				2	
13	154 ½	63 ½	64½a63½	82	99 ⅞			187 ½	5				2	19 10 0
14	154	63 ⅛	64a63½	81 ½	99 ⅞			187 ½	4				2	
15	154 ⅛		64a63⅜		99 ⅞			186 ½	7				2 ⅛	19 10 0
16	153 ⅞		64½a63½	82 ⅛	99 ⅞			186 ½	11			63 ⅞	2 ⅛	19 12 0
17	153 ½		63⅞a63⅛	82 ⅛	100			185 ½	12				2	19 12 0
18														
20	154		64a63½	82 ½	100 ⅛		9 ⅛	184 ½	14				1 ⅞	
21	155		64½a64⅛	82 ⅛	100 ¼			186	11	69 ½			2	19 16 0
22	154		66½a64½	82 ½	100 ⅛			190	11	69 ½			1 ⅞	19 17 0
23	153	66 ½	66a64½		100 ⅛			188 ½	11				2	19 17 0
24	154 ⅜	66 ¼	65½a65⅛	83 ⅛	100 ⅛		8 ⅞	189	11				2	19 18 0
25														
27														
28														

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Prices. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

Engrav'd by Jos.h Baker - Liverpool

TASSO.

MEMOIRS *of the* LIFE *and* WRITINGS *of* TORQUATO TASSO:
With a fine Portrait of that celebrated Poet.

TORQUATO TASSO, a celebrated Italian poet, was deſcended from the illuſtrious houſe of the Torregiani, lords of Bergamo, Milan, and ſeveral other towns in Lombardy. The Torregiani, being expelled by the Viſconti, ſettled between Bergamo and Como, in the moſt advantageous poſts of the mountain of Taſſo, from which they took their name. This family ſupported itſelf by alliances till the time of Bernardo Taſſo, whoſe mother was of the houſe of Cornaro. The eſtate of Bernardo, the father of our poet, was no wiſe equal to his birth; but this deficiency, in point of fortune, was in ſome meaſure compenſated by the gifts of underſtanding. His works in verſe and proſe are recorded as monuments of his genius; and his fidelity to Ferrante of Sanſeverino, prince of Salerno, to whom he was entirely devoted, entitled him to the eſteem of every man of honour. This prince had made him his ſecretary, and taken him with him to Naples, where he ſettled, and married Portia di Roſſi, of one of the moſt illuſtrious families in that city.

Portia was ſix months gone with child, when ſhe was invited by her ſiſter Hippolyta to Sorrento, to pay her a viſit. Bernardo accompanied her thither: and in this place Portia was delivered of a ſon, on the 11th day of March 1544, at noon. The infant was baptiſed a few days after, in the metropolitan church of Sorrento, by the name of Torquato. Bernardo and Portia returned ſoon after to Naples, with little Taſſo, whoſe birth, like Homer's, was afterward diſputed by ſeveral cities that claimed the honour of it: but it ſeems undeniably proved that he was born at Sorrento.

Hiſtorians relate incredible things of his early and promiſing genius; they tell us, that, at ſix months old, he not only ſpoke and pronounced his words clearly and diſtinctly, but that he thought, reaſoned, expreſſed his wants, and anſwered queſtions; that there was nothing childiſh in his words, but the tone of his voice; that he ſeldom laughed or cried; and that, even then, he gave certain tokens of that equality of temper which ſupported him ſo well in his future misfortunes.

Toward the end of his third year, Bernardo his father was obliged to follow the prince of Salerno into Germany, which journey proved the ſource of all the ſufferings of Taſſo and his family. The occaſion was this: Don Pedro of Toledo, viceroy of Naples for the emperor Charles V, had formed a deſign to eſtabliſh the inquiſition in that city. The Neapolitans, alarmed at this, reſolved to ſend a deputation to the emperor, and, for that purpoſe, made choice of the prince of Salerno, who ſeemed moſt able, by his authority and riches, to make head againſt the viceroy. The prince undertook the affair; and Bernardo Taſſo accompanied him into Germany.

Before his departure, Bernardo committed the care of his ſon to Angeluzzo, a man of learning; for it was his opinion, that a boy could not be put too ſoon under the tuition of men. At three years of age, they tell us *, little Taſſo began to ſtudy grammar; and, at four, was ſent to the college of the Jeſuits, where he made ſo rapid a progreſs, that at ſeven he was pretty well acquainted with the Latin and Greek tongues; at the ſame age he made public orations, and compoſed

* All the principal incidents in this life are taken from the account given by Giovanni Battiſto Manſo, a Neapolitan, lord of Biſaccio and Pianca. This nobleman was Taſſo's intimate friend: he had many of our author's papers in his poſſeſſion, and being himſelf witneſs to ſeveral particulars which he relates, his authority ſeems unexceptionable.

ſome pieces of poetry, of which the ſtyle is ſaid to have retained nothing of puerility. The following lines he addreſſed to his mother when he left Naples to follow his father's fortune, being then only nine years of age.

Ma dal ſen de la madre empia fortuna
Pargoletto divelſe, ah di' que' baci
Ch' ella bagnò di lagrime dolenti
Con ſoſpir mi rimembra, e de gli ardenti
Prieghi che ſen portar l'aure fugaci,
Che i' non dovea giunger più volto à volto
Fra quelle braccia accolto
Con nodi così ſtretti, e ſi tenaci,
Laſſo, e ſegnij con mal ſicure piante
Qual' Aſcanio, o Camilla il padre errante.

Relentleſs Fortune in my early years
Removes me from a mother's tender breaſt:
With ſighs I call to mind the farewel tears
That bath'd her kiſſes when my lips ſhe preſs'd!
I hear her prayers with ardour breath'd to Heaven,
Aſide now wafted by the devious wind:
No more to her unhappy ſon 'tis given
Th' endearments of maternal love to find!
No more her fondling arms ſhall round me ſpread;
Far from her ſight reluctant I retire;
Like young Camilla or Aſcanius, led
To trace the footſteps of my wandering ſire!

The ſucceſs the prince of Salerno met with in his embaſſy greatly increaſed his credit among the Neapolitans, but entirely ruined him with the viceroy, who left nothing unturned to make the emperor jealous of the great deference the people ſhewed Ferrante, from which he inferred the moſt dangerous conſequences. He ſo much exaſperated the emperor againſt the prince of Salerno, that Ferrante, finding there was no longer any ſecurity for him at Naples, and having in vain applied to gain an audience of the emperor, retired to Rome, and renounced his allegiance to Charles V.

Bernardo Taſſo would not abandon his patron in his ill fortune; neither would he leave his ſon in a country where he himſelf was ſoon to be declared an enemy; and foreſeeing he ſhould never be able to return thither, he took young Torquato with him to Rome.

As ſoon as the departure of the prince of Salerno was known, he, and all his adherents, were declared rebels to the ſtate; and what may ſeem very extraordinary, Torquato Taſſo, though but nine years of age, was included by name in that ſentence. Bernardo, following the prince of Salerno into France, committed his ſon to the care of his friend and relation Mauritio Cataneo, a perſon of great ability, who aſſiduouſly cultivated the early diſpoſition of his pupil to polite literature. After the death of Sanſeverino, which happened in three or four years, Bernardo returned to Italy, and engaged in the ſervice of Guglielmo Gonzaga, duke of Mantua, who had given him a preſſing invitation. It was not long before he received the melancholy news of the deceaſe of his wife Portia: this event determined him to ſend for his ſon, that they might be a mutual ſupport to each other in their affliction. He had left him at Rome, becauſe his reſidence in that city was highly agreeable to his mother; but that reaſon now ceaſing, he was reſolved to be no longer deprived of the ſociety of the only child he had left; for his wife, before her death, had married his daughter to Martio Serſale, a gentleman of Sorrento.

Bernardo was greatly ſurpriſed, on his ſon's arrival, to ſee the vaſt progreſs he had made in his ſtudies. He was now twelve years of age, and had, according to the teſtimony of the writers of his life, entirely completed his knowledge in the Latin and Greek tongues: he was well acquainted with the rules of rhetoric and poetry, and completely verſed in Ariſtotle's ethics; but he particularly ſtudied the precepts of Mauritio Cataneo, whom he ever afterward reverenced as a ſecond father. Bernardo ſoon determined to ſend him to the univerſity of Padua, to ſtudy the laws, in company with the

the young Scipio Gonzaga, afterward cardinal, nearly of the ſame age as himſelf. With this nobleman Taſſo, then ſeventeen years of age, contracted a friendſhip that never ended but with his life.

He proſecuted his ſtudies at Padua with great diligence and ſucceſs: at the ſame time, employing his leiſure hours upon philoſophy and poetry, he ſoon gave a public proof of his talents, by his poem of Rinaldo, which he publiſhed in the eighteenth year of his age.

This poem, which is of the romance kind, is divided into twelve books in ottava rima, and contains the adventures of Rinaldo, the famous Paladin of the court of Charlemain, who makes ſuch a principal figure in Arioſto's work, and, the firſt achievements of that knight for the love of the fair Clarice, whom he afterward marries. The action of this poem precedes that of the Orlando Furioſo. It was compoſed in ten months, as the author himſelf informs us in the preface, and was firſt printed at Venice in the year 1562. Paolo Beni ſpeaks very highly of this performance, which undoubtedly is not unworthy the early efforts of that genius which afterward produced the Jeruſalem.

Taſſo's father ſaw with regret the ſucceſs of his ſon's poem: he was apprehenſive, and not without reaſon, that the charms of poetry would detach him from thoſe more ſolid ſtudies, which he judged were moſt likely to raiſe him in the world: he knew very well, by his own experience, that the greateſt ſkill in poetry will not advance a man's private fortune. He was not deceived in his conjecture: Torquato, inſenſibly carried away by his predominant paſſion, followed the examples of Petrarch, Boccace, Arioſto, and others, who, contrary to the remonſtrances of their friends, quitted the ſeverer ſtudies of the law for the more pleaſing entertainment of poetical compoſition. In ſhort, he entirely gave himſelf up to the ſtudy of poetry and philoſophy. His firſt poem extended his reputation through all Italy; but his father was ſo diſpleaſed with his conduct, that he went to Padua on purpoſe to reprimand him. Though he ſpoke with great vehemence, and made uſe of ſeveral harſh expreſſions, Torquato heard him without interrupting him, and his compoſure contributed not a little to increaſe his father's diſpleaſure. 'Tell me,' ſaid Bernardo, 'of what uſe is that vain philoſophy, upon which you pride yourſelf ſo much?' 'It has enabled me,' ſaid Taſſo modeſtly, 'to endure the harſhneſs of your reproofs.'

The reſolution Taſſo had taken to devote himſelf to the muſes, being known all over Italy, the principal perſons of the city and college of Bologna invited him thither. But Taſſo had not long reſided there, when he was preſſed by Scipio Gonzaga, elected prince of the academy eſtabliſhed at Padua, under the name of Etherei, to return to that city. He could not withſtand this ſolicitation, and Bologna being at that time the ſcene of civil commotion, he was the more willing to ſeek elſewhere for the repoſe he loved. He was received with extreme joy by all the academy, and being incorporated into that ſociety, at the age of twenty years, took upon himſelf the name of Pentito; by which he ſeemed to ſhew that he repented of all the time which he had employed in the ſtudy of the law.

In this retreat he applied himſelf afreſh to philoſophy and poetry, and ſoon became a perfect maſter of both: it was this happy mixture of his ſtudies that made him an enemy to all kinds of licentiouſneſs. An oration was made one day in the academy upon the nature of love; the orator treated his ſubject in a very maſterly manner, but with too little regard to decency in the opinion of Taſſo, who, being aſked what he thought of the diſcourſe, replied, 'that it was a pleaſing poiſon.'

Here Taſſo formed the deſign of his celebrated poem, Jeruſalem Delivered; he invented the fable, diſpoſed the different parts, and determined to dedicate this work to the glory of the houſe of Eſte *. He was greatly eſteemed by Alphonſo II. the laſt duke of Ferrara, that great patron of learning and learned men, and by his brother, cardinal Luigi. There was a ſort of conteſt between theſe two brothers, in relation to the poem: the cardinal imagined that he had a right to be the Mecænas of all Taſſo's works, as Rinaldo, his firſt piece, had been dedicated to him: the duke, on the other hand, thought that, as his brother had already received his ſhare of honour, he ought not to be offended at ſeeing the name of Alphonſo at the head of the Jeruſalem Delivered. Taſſo for three or four years ſuſpended his determination: at length, being earneſtly preſſed by both the brothers to take up his reſidence in Ferrara, he ſuffered himſelf to be prevailed upon. The duke gave him an apartment in his palace, where he lived in peace and affluence, and purſued his deſign of completing his Jeruſalem †, which he now reſolved to dedicate to Alphonſo. The duke, who was deſirous of fixing Taſſo near him, had thoughts of marrying him advantageouſly, but he always evaded any propoſal of that kind: though he appeared peculiarly devoted to Alphonſo, yet he neglected not to pay his court to the cardinal.

The name of Taſſo now became famous through all Europe: and the careſſes he received from Charles IX. in a journey he made to France ‡ with cardinal Luigi, who went thither in quality of legate, ſhew that his reputation was not confined to his own country.

The cardinal's legation being finiſhed, Taſſo returned to Ferrara ||, where he applied himſelf to finiſh his Jeruſalem, and in the mean time publiſhed his Aminta, a paſtoral comedy §, which was received with univerſal applauſe. This performance was looked upon as a maſter-piece in its kind, and is the original of the Paſtor Fido and Filli di Sciro.

It was not eaſy to imagine that Taſſo could ſo well paint the effects of love, without having himſelf felt that paſſion: it began to be ſuſpected that, like another Ovid, he had raiſed his deſires too high, and it was thought that in many of his verſes he gave hints of that kind.

There were at the duke's court three Leonoras, equally witty and beautiful, though of different quality. The firſt was Leonora of Eſte, ſiſter to the duke, who having refuſed the moſt advantageous matches, lived unmarried with Lauretta, ducheſs of Urbino, her elder ſiſter, who was ſeparated from her huſband, and reſided at her brother's court. Taſſo had a great attachment to this lady, who, on her ſide, honoured him with her eſteem and protection. She was wiſe, generous, and not only well read in elegant literature, but even verſed in the more abſtruſe ſciences. All theſe perfections were undoubtedly obſerved by Taſſo, who was one of the moſt aſſiduous of her courtiers: and it appearing by his verſes that he was touched with the charms of a Leonora, they tell us that we need not ſeek any further for the object of his paſſion.

The ſecond Leonora that was given him for a miſtreſs was the counteſs of San Vitale, daughter of the count of Sala, who lived at that time at the court of Ferrara, and paſſed for one of the moſt accompliſhed perſons in

* Mr. Hayley, in the notes to his 'Eſſay on Epic Poetry,' has given an original letter of Taſſo's (not hitherto noticed by any of his biographers) by which it appears, that beſide the exploits of Godfrey, in the deliverance of Jeruſalem, he had four other ſubjects in contemplation for an epic poem, before he could abſolutely fix his choice; namely, The expedition of Belliarius againſt the Goths; of Narſetes againſt the ſame; of Charlemain againſt Lanſoni; and his expedition againſt the Lombards.

† Ann. æt. 22. ‡ Ann. æt. 27. || Ann. æt. 28. § Ann. æt. 29.

Italy. Thoſe who imagined that Taſſo would not preſume to lift his eyes to his maſter's ſiſter, ſuppoſed that he loved this lady. It is certain that he had frequent opportunities of diſcourſing with her, and that ſhe had frequently been the ſubject of his verſes.

The third Leonora was a lady in the ſervice of the princeſs Leonora of Eſte. This perſon was thought by ſome to be the moſt proper object of the poet's gallantry. Taſſo, ſeveral times, employed his muſe in her ſervice: in one of his pieces he confeſſes, that conſidering the princeſs as too high for his hope, he had fixed his affection upon her, as of a condition more ſuitable to his own. But if any thing can be juſtly drawn from this particular, it ſeems rather to ſtrengthen the opinion, that his deſires, at leaſt at one time, had aſpired to a greater height.

However, it appears difficult to determine with certainty in relation to Taſſo's paſſion; eſpecially when we conſider the privilege allowed to poets: though M. Mirabaud * makes no ſcruple to mention it as a circumſtance almoſt certain, and fixes it without heſitation on the princeſs Leonora. Taſſo, himſelf, in ſeveral of his poems, ſeems to endeavour to throw an obſcurity over his paſſion.

In the mean while Taſſo proceeded with his Jeruſalem, which he completed in the thirtieth year of his age: but this poem was not publiſhed by his own authority; it was printed againſt his will, as ſoon as he had finiſhed the laſt book, and before he had time to give the reviſals and corrections that a work of ſuch a nature required. The public had already ſeen ſeveral parts, which had been ſent into the world by the authority of his patrons. The ſucceſs of this work was prodigious: it was tranſlated into the Latin, French, Spaniſh, and even the Oriental languages, almoſt as ſoon as it appeared; and it may be ſaid, that no ſuch performance ever before raiſed its reputation to ſuch a height in ſo ſmall a ſpace of time.

But the ſatisfaction which Taſſo muſt feel, in ſpite of all his philoſophy, at the applauſe of the public, was ſoon diſturbed by a melancholy event †. Bernardo Taſſo, who ſpent his old age in tranquillity at Oſtia upon the Po, the government of which place had been given him by the duke of Mantua, fell ſick. As ſoon as this news reached his ſon, he immediately went to him, attended him with the moſt filial regard, and ſcarce ever ſtirred from his bedſide during the whole time of his illneſs: but all theſe cares were ineffectual; Bernardo, oppreſſed with age, and overcome by the violence of his diſtemper, paid the unavoidable tribute to nature, to the great affliction of Torquato. The duke of Mantua, who had a ſincere eſteem for Bernardo, cauſed him to be interred, with much pomp, in the church of St. Egidius at Mantua, with this ſimple inſcription on his tomb:

Ossa Bernardi Tassi.

This death ſeemed to forebode other misfortunes to Taſſo; for the remainder of his life proved almoſt one continued ſeries of vexation and affliction. About this time a ſwarm of critics began to attack his Jeruſalem, and the academy della Cruſca, in particular, publiſhed a criticiſm of his poem, in which they ſcrupled not to prefer the rhapſodies of Pulci and Boyardo to the Jeruſalem Delivered.

During Taſſo's reſidence in the duke's court, he had contracted an intimacy with a gentleman of Ferrara ‡, and having entruſted him with ſome tranſactions of a very delicate nature, this perſon was ſo treacherous as to ſpeak of them again. Taſſo reproached his friend with his indiſcretion, who received his expoſtulation in ſuch a manner, that Taſſo was ſo far exaſperated as to ſtrike him: a

* Abregé de la Vie du Taſſe. † Ann. æt. 31. ‡ Ann. æt. 33.

chal-

challenge immediately enſued: the two opponents met at St. Leonard's gate, but, while they were engaged, three brothers of Taſſo's antagoniſt came in and baſely fell all at once upon Taſſo, who defended himſelf ſo gallantly that he wounded two of them, and kept his ground againſt the others, till ſome people came in and ſeparated them. This affair made a great noiſe at Ferrara: nothing was to be ſeen or but the valour of Taſſo; and it became a ſort of proverb, 'That Taſſo with his pen and his ſword was ſuperior to all men *.'

The duke, being informed of the quarrel, expreſſed great reſentment againſt the four brothers, baniſhed them from his dominions, and confiſcated their eſtates; at the ſame time he cauſed Taſſo to be put under arreſt, declaring he did it to ſcreen him from any future deſigns of his enemies. Taſſo was extremely mortified to ſee himſelf thus confined; he imputed his detention to a very different cauſe from what was pretended, and feared an ill uſe might be made of what had paſſed, to ruin him in the duke's opinion.

Though writers have left us very much in the dark with regard to the real motives that induced the duke to keep Taſſo in confinement, yet, every thing being weighed, it ſeems highly probable that the affair of a delicate nature, ſaid to have been divulged by his friend, muſt have related to the princeſs Leonora, the duke's ſiſter: and indeed it will be extremely difficult, from any other conſideration, to account for the harſh treatment he received from a prince who had before ſhewn him ſuch peculiar marks of eſteem and friendſhip. However, Taſſo himſelf had undoubtedly ſecret apprehenſions that increaſed upon him every day, while the continual attacks, which were made upon his credit as an author, not a little contributed to heighten his melancholy. At length he reſolved to take the firſt opportunity to fly from his priſon, for ſo he eſteemed it, which after about a year's detention, he effected, and retired to Turin, where he endeavoured to remain concealed; but notwithſtanding all his precautions, he was ſoon known and recommended to the duke of Savoy, who received him into his palace, and ſhewed him every mark of eſteem and affection. But Taſſo's apprehenſions ſtill continued; he thought that the duke of Savoy would not refuſe to give him up to the duke of Ferrara, or ſacrifice the friendſhip of that prince to the ſafety of a private perſon. Full of theſe imaginations he ſet out for Rome †, alone and unprovided with neceſſaries for ſuch a journey. At his arrival there he went directly to his old friend Mauritio Cataneo, who received him in ſuch a manner as entirely to obliterate, for ſome time, the remembrance of the fatigue and uneaſineſs he had undergone. He was not only welcomed by Cataneo, but the whole city of Rome ſeemed to rejoice at the preſence of ſo extraordinary a perſon. He was viſited by princes, cardinals, prelates, and by all the learned in general. But the deſire of reviſiting his native country, and ſeeing his ſiſter Cornelia, ſoon made him uneaſy in this ſituation. He left his friend Mauritio Cataneo one evening, without giving him notice; and, beginning his journey on foot, arrived by night at the mountains of Veletri, where he took up his lodging with ſome ſhepherds: the next morning, diſguiſing himſelf in the habit of one of theſe people, he continued his way, and in four days time reached Gaieta, almoſt ſpent with fatigue; here he embarked on board a veſſel bound for Sorrento, at which place he arrived in ſafety the next day. He entered the city and went directly to his ſiſter's houſe: ſhe was a widow, and the two ſons ſhe had by her huſband be-

* 'Con la penna e con la ſpada
'Neſſun val quanto Torquato.'

† Ann. æt. 34.

ing

ing at that time abſent, Taſſo found her with only ſome of her female attendants. He advanced toward her, without diſcovering himſelf, and pretending he came with news from her brother, gave her a letter which he had prepared for that purpoſe. This letter informed her that her brother's life was in great danger, and that he begged her to make uſe of all the intereſt her tenderneſs might ſuggeſt to her, in order to procure letters of recommendation from ſome powerful perſon, to avert the threatened misfortune. For further particulars of the affair, ſhe was referred to the meſſenger who brought her this intelligence. The lady, terrified at the news, earneſtly entreated him to give her a detail of her brother's misfortune. The feigned meſſenger then gave her ſo intereſting an account of the pretended ſtory, that, unable to contain her affliction, ſhe fainted away. Taſſo was ſenſibly touched at this convincing proof of his ſiſter's affection, and repented that he had gone ſo far: he began to comfort her, and, removing her fears by little and little, at laſt diſcovered himſelf to her. Her joy at ſeeing a brother whom ſhe tenderly loved, was inexpreſſible: after the firſt ſalutations were over, ſhe was very deſirous to know the occaſion of his diſguiſing himſelf in that manner. Taſſo acquainted her with his reaſons, and, at the ſame time, giving her to underſtand, that he would willingly remain with her unknown to the world, Cornelia, who deſired nothing further than to acquieſce in his pleaſure, ſent for her children and ſome of her neareſt relations, whom ſhe thought might be entruſted with the ſecret. They agreed that Taſſo ſhould paſs for a relation of theirs, who came from Bergamo to Naples upon his private buſineſs, and from thence had come to Sorrento to pay them a viſit. After this precaution, Taſſo took up his reſidence at his ſiſter's houſe, where he lived for ſome time in tranquillity, entertaining himſelf with his two nephews Antonio and Aleſſandro Serſale, children of great hopes. He continued not long in this repoſe before he received repeated letters from the princeſs Leonora of Eſte, who was acquainted with the place of his retreat, to return to Ferrara: he reſolved to obey the ſummons, and took leave of his ſiſter, telling her he was going to return a voluntary priſoner. In his way he paſſed through Rome, where having been detained ſome time with a dangerous fever, he repaired from thence to Ferrara, in company with Gualingo, ambaſſador from the duke to the pope.

Concerning the motive of Taſſo's return to Ferrara, authors do not altogether agree: ſome declare that, ſoon wearied of living in obſcurity, and growing impatient to retrieve the duke's favour, he had reſolved, of his own accord, to throw himſelf on that prince's generoſity: this opinion ſeems indeed drawn from Taſſo's own words, in a letter written by him to the duke of Urbino, in which he declares 'that he had endeavoured to make his peace with the duke, and had for that purpoſe written ſeverally to him, the ducheſs of Ferrara, the ducheſs of Urbino, and the princeſs Leonora; yet never received any anſwer but from the laſt, who aſſured him it was not in her power to render him any ſervice.' We ſee here that Taſſo acknowledges himſelf the receipt of a letter from the princeſs; and in regard to what he ſays to be the purport of it, it is highly reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that he would be very cautious of divulging the real contents to the duke of Urbino, when his affairs with that lady were ſo delicately circumſtanced. This apparent care to conceal the nature of his correſpondence with her, ſeems to corroborate the former ſuppoſitions of his uncommon attachment to her; and when all circumſtances are conſidered, we believe it will appear more than probable that he returned to Ferrara at the particular injunction of Leonora.

The

The duke received Taſſo with great ſeeming ſatisfaction, and gave him freſh marks of his eſteem: but this was not all that Taſſo expected; his great deſire was to be maſter of his own works, and he was very earneſt that his writings might be reſtored to him, which were in the duke's poſſeſſion; but this was what he could by no means obtain: his enemies had gained ſuch an aſcendancy over the mind of Alphonſo, that they made him believe, or pretend to believe, that the poet had loſt all his fire, and that in his preſent ſituation he was incapable of producing any thing new, or of correcting his poems: he therefore exhorted him to think only of leading a quiet and eaſy life for the future: but Taſſo was ſenſibly vexed at this proceeding, and believed the duke wanted him entirely to relinquiſh his ſtudies, and paſs the remainder of his days in idleneſs and obſcurity. 'He would endeavour,' ſays he, in his letter to the duke of Urbino, 'to make me a ſhameful deſerter of Parnaſſus for the gardens of Epicurus, for ſcenes of pleaſures unknown to Virgil, Catullus, Horace, and even Lucretius himſelf.'

Taſſo reiterated his entreaties to have his writings reſtored to him, but the duke continued inflexible, and, to complete our poet's vexation, all acceſs to the princeſſes was denied him; fatigued at length with uſeleſs remonſtrances, he once more quitted Ferrara, and fled (as he expreſſes it himſelf) like another Bias, leaving behind him even his books and manuſcripts.

He then went to Mantua, where he found duke Guglielmo in a decrepid age, and little diſpoſed to protect him againſt the duke of Ferrara: the prince Vincentio Gonzaga received him indeed with great careſſes, but was too young to take him under his protection. From thence he went to Padua and Venice, but carrying with him in every part his fears of the duke of Ferrara, he at laſt had recourſe to the duke of Urbino *, who ſhewed him great kindneſs, but perhaps was very little inclined to embroil himſelf with his brother-in-law, on ſuch an account: he adviſed Taſſo rather to return to Ferrara, which council he took, reſolving once more to try his fortune with the duke.

Alphonſo, it may be, exaſperated at Taſſo's flight, and pretending to believe that application to ſtudy had entirely diſordered his underſtanding, and that a ſtrict regimen was neceſſary to reſtore him to his former ſtate, cauſed him to be ſtrictly confined in the hoſpital of St. Anne. Taſſo tried every method to ſoften the duke and obtain his liberty; but the duke coldly anſwered thoſe who applied to him, 'that inſtead of concerning themſelves with the complaints of a perſon in his condition, who was very little capable of judging for his own good, they ought rather to exhort him patiently to ſubmit to ſuch remedies, as were judged proper for his circumſtances.'

This confinement threw Taſſo into the deepeſt deſpair; he abandoned himſelf to his misfortunes, and the methods that were made uſe of for the cure of his pretended madneſs had nearly thrown him into an abſolute delirium. His imagination was ſo diſturbed that he believed the cauſe of his diſtemper was not natural; he ſometimes fancied himſelf haunted by a ſpirit, that continually diſordered his books and papers; and theſe ſtrange notions were perhaps ſtrengthened by the tricks that were played him by his keeper. While Taſſo continued in this melancholy ſituation, he is ſaid to have written the following elegantly ſimple and affecting lines, which cannot well be tranſlated into Engliſh verſe:

Tu che ne vai in Pindo
Ivi pende mia cetra ad un cipreſſo,
Salutala in mio nome, e dille poi
Ch'io ſon dagl' anni e da fortuna oppreſſo †.

[To be concluded in our next.]

* Ann. æt. 35. † Thou that goeſt to Pindus, where my harp hangs on a cypreſs, ſalute it in my name, and ſay that I am oppreſſed with years and misfortunes.

A Deſcrip-

A Deſcription of ASSAM, *or* ASAM, *a Country to the North Eaſt of* Bengal, *in the* Eaſt Indies.

This Article, which may be conſidered as a very curious Acquiſition to the Geography of the Oriental Regions, is ſelected from the ſecond Volume of the Aſiatic Reſearches, *and is tranſlated from the Perſian of* Mohammed Caſim, *by* Henry Vanſittart, *Eſq.*

ASAM lies north eaſt of Bengal, and is divided into two parts, the northern called Uttarcul, and the ſouthern Dacſhincul; its length is about two hundred ſtandard cos, and its breadth about eight days journey. It is watered by the river Brahma-Putra, which flows from Khata, and ſeveral rivers that run into it, the principal of theſe is the Dhonac, the land between them is ſpacious and clear, and bounded by a thick foreſt abounding with elephants. In this and other foreſts of Aſam, five or ſix hundred elephants may be procured in a year. Acroſs the Dhonac the country is marked with population and tillage, and preſents on every ſide charming proſpects, ploughed fields, gardens, and groves. As the country is overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon, a cauſeway is raiſed for the convenience of travellers, and on each ſide is planted ſhady bamboos, the top of which meet and intertwine. The fruits produced here are mangoes, plantaines, oranges, citrons, limes, &c. The ſugar cane excels in ſweetneſs, and is of three colours, red, black and white.

The ſilks here are excellent, and reſemble the Chineſe; ſalt is a ſcarce commodity. The mountains are inhabited by the tribe called Nanacs, an evil diſpoſed race, who go naked, and eat dogs, cats, mice, locuſts, and any thing they can find.

The country of Uttarcul is in a high ſtate of cultivation, the inhabitants of the mountains are ſtrong, and have a reſpectable appearance, their complexions are red and white. Gold and ſilver are procured in Aſam, by waſhing the ſand of the rivers. This is one ſource of revenue, and it is ſuppoſed that 20,000 people are employed in this occupation. The people of Aſam are baſe and unprincipled, have no fixed religion, nor any rule but their inclinations, they eat all fleſh except human, and will eat animals that die a natural death. The women are not veiled, and perform work in the open air. The men have often four or five wives, whom they publicly buy, ſell, and exchange. They ſhave their heads and beards, their ſtrength and courage are apparent in their looks, and their ferocious tempers betrayed by their phyſiognomy. They are enterpriſing, ſavage, fond of war, vindictive, and deceitful. Their dreſs conſiſts of a cloth round their heads, another round their loins, and a ſheet over their ſhoulders: both rich and poor conſtruct their habitations of wood, bamboos and ſtraw. The rajah and his courtiers travel in litters, and opulent perſons in doolies. Aſam has neither horſes, camels, nor aſſes; but they are ſometimes brought there from other countries. Aſſes they are fond of, but are ſo much afraid of a horſe, that one trooper would put a hundred of them to flight.

The ancient inhabitants of this country are divided into two tribes, the Aſamians, and Cultanians, the former are the warriors, of which ſix or ſeven thouſand attend the raja as a body guard. Their martial weapons are the muſquet, ſword, ſpear, arrow and bow: they have alſo cannon and ſwivels, in the uſe of which they are very expert.

On the death of any of the rajah's they dig a cave for the deceaſed, in which they inter his women, attendants, and ſervants, and ſome of his

magnificent equipage and furniture, ſuch as elephants, gold and ſilver, carpets, clothes, victuals, lamps, with a great deal of oil, and a torch bearer; for they conſider theſe things as neceſſary in a future ſtate; they afterward cover the cave with a roof of ſtrong timbers. The people of the army entered ſome of theſe caves, and took out of them the value of ninety thouſand rupees in gold and ſilver.

Ghergong, where the rajah's palace is ſituated, has four gates, has a fence of bamboos, and raiſed cauſeways for the convenience of paſſengers in rainy ſeaſons; before each houſe is a garden, and ſome cultivated ground. The rajah's palace is ſurrounded with a ditch, and has within it ſome ſpacious apartments, among which is a diwan khanah, or public ſaloon, one hundred and fifty cubits long, forty broad, and is ſupported by ſixty-ſix wooden pillars. There are here many plates of braſs ſo well poliſhed as to ſhine like mirrors.

The rajahs diſplay an oſtentatious appearance of grandeur, they have never paid tribute to any, and have checked the conqueſt of ſome of the moſt victorious princes of Hindooſtan. Covered in their ſtrong poſts, they diſtreſs their enemy by ſtratagems, ſurpriſes, and alarms, and when the rainy ſeaſon ſets in, they fall on their invaders, and have in this manner deſtroyed numerous armies.

Huſain Shah, king of Bengal, loſt a large army in this manner. Mohammed, ſon of Togluc Shah, had an army of 100,000 men deſtroyed in an invaſion of this country.

To this account of Mohammed Cazim it is proper to add, that Aſam lies between 91 and 96 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 25 and 28 degrees of north latitude.

On the MANNERS, RELIGION, *and* LAWS *of the* CUCI *or* MOUNTAINEERS *of* Tipra, *or* Tiperah, *a Country to the Eaſt of* Bengal.

[Communicated to the Aſiatic Society, by James Rawlins, Eſq.]

THE inhabitants of the mountainous diſtricts, eaſt of Bengal *, give the name Patiyan, to the Being who created the univerſe, but they believe that a deity exiſts in every tree, and that the ſun and moon are gods. If any one of them kills another, the brother or heir only have a right to take blood for blood; ſmaller crimes are puniſhed by a fine, directed by the cheiftain. The Cuci cruelly cut off the heads of the women of an enemy's country, even if they are pregnant.

Their wives they purchaſe of the father or mother for cattle; a man may marry any woman except his mother. If a married couple have a ſon, the wife is fixed; but if they have no ſon, the huſband may divorce her.

They have no idea of heaven or hell, or future rewards and puniſhments, but believe that a ſpirit carries away the ſoul of the dying perſon.

Their food conſiſts of elephants, hogs, deer and other animals; and if they find the carcaſſes or limbs in the foreſts, they dry and eat them. When reſolved on war, they march in the night, armed with ſwords, lances and arrows, to ſurpriſe their enemy, and if they ſucceed, kill all they meet, male and female, and ſtrip the houſes. If they are oppoſed and over matched, they quickly retreat. If they ſee a ſtar near the moon, they expect an attack from their enemy, and remain under arms. They lay at all times in ambuſh to kill their foes, and he who carries home a head is diſtinguiſhed in his nation. If two parties

* Tipra, or Tiperah, which contains theſe mountainous diſtricts, lies under the tropic of cancer, in the dominions of the king of Burmah.

meet pretty equal, they come to a treaty, which they conclude with feasting, calling on the sun and moon to witness their pacification. A vanquished tribe becomes tributary to their conquerors. Their provisions for war is a dried root like a potatoe, with paste of rice-flour, and having no victuals to dress, they march a great distance in one day. Their weapons of war are fabricated only by particular tribes.

Their household affairs belong wholly to the women, the men build the huts, cultivate the land, hunt and make war. On the birth of a child they feast their friends, and end the day with dancing and singing. All deformed persons go about begging like religious mendicants.

At the death of one of the Cuci, they kill a hog, and having boiled the meat, pour some liquor into the mouth of the deceased, twist a piece of cloth round his body, and all taste the liquor as an offering to his soul; this they repeat several days. Then they lay the body on a stage, dry it by a fire, and inter it, scattering fruits and flowers over the grave; but some of them cover their dead with a shroud and a mat, and hang them on a high tree. When the flesh is decayed they wash the bones, and keep them in a bowl, often consulting them on any emergency, and alleging that they act by the command of their departed friend. A widow must remain a whole year near the grave of her husband; where the family bring her food. If she die within the year, they mourn for her; if she lives they carry her back, and her relations have an entertainment. If the deceased leaves three sons, the eldest and youngest take the property; the other has nothing. If he has no sons, the estate goes to his brothers: if no brothers, it escheats to the chief.

An ACCOUNT *of the Kingdom of* NEPAL.

The following Article, which contains some curious Particulars of a Country little known to Europeans, was communicated to the Asiatic Society *at* Calcutta; *by Father* Guiseppe, *Prefect of the Roman Mission.*

THE kingdom of Nepal * is situated north-east of Patna, the capital of Bahar, in Hindoostan Proper. It is distant from that city about ten or eleven days journey. The road lays through the kingdom of Macwanpur. Near Nepal the road is good, but bad in the mountains, narrow, and dangerous. At the foot of the hills the air is unwholesome, from March to November, and putrid fevers are common and fatal. On the interior mountains you have a fine view of the plains of Nepal, resembling an amphitheatre, covered with towns and villages: this plain is about 200 miles circumference, and surrounded on all sides with hills.

There are three principal cities in the plain, each of which was the capital of a large kingdom; the chief of which is called Cathmandu †, and contains about 18,000 houses: this kingdom extends to Thibet; the king has 50,000 soldiers in his service. The second, situated south-west of Cathmandu, is called Lelit Patan, contains 24,000 houses: this kingdom borders on Macwanpur. The third city is called Bhargan, contains 12,000 families; the kingdom extends east, and borders on a nation called Ceratas, who profess no religion. Those and the smaller towns are well built, the houses of brick, three or four stories high, and have doors and windows of wood. The streets are paved, and in most of them wells, made of stone, for public use. In every town are square verandas, called Pali, and

* *Napaul*, according to major Rennell.

† *Catmandu*, according to the same.

many of them with wells. Without the towns are ſquare reſervoirs of water to bathe in.

The religion of Nepal is of two kinds; one ſect, the moſt ancient, is profeſſed by many, who call themſelves Baryeſu, pluck their hair from their heads, dreſs in coarſe red woollen, are conſidered as a religious order, have monaſteries, and in them each perſon has a ſeparate apartment; they have particular feſtivals, in one of which, at Lelit Patan, they draw an idol, called Baghere *, in a ſtately car. The other religion is that of the Brahmans, as followed in Hindooſtan in its purity. Their places of worſhip are very numerous and magnificent. In Lelit Patan, the temple was more valuable than the houſe of the king. The ſmall temples have ſtairs, by which one perſon may aſcend on the outſide; ſome have four ſides, others ſix, with marble pillars poliſhed ſmooth, with two or three pyramidal ſtones; the ornaments are gilt and neat. The larger temples have ſtone pillars round them, twenty to thirty feet high, on which they place their idols. There are many ſmall bells in the cupolas.

Eaſtward of Cathmanda, about three miles, is a place called Tolu, by which runs a river, the water of which is eſteemed holy, and to which they carry perſons of high rank at the point of death. They have an idea, that in two or three places treaſures are buried under ground, which have belonged to ſome temples; the king, while Mr. Shore was in Nepal, opened one of theſe places to pay the expences of a war.

Weſtward of Lelit Patan, is a caſtle, called Banga, where is a temple, which Mr. Shore viſited, the magnificence of which, he thinks, is not to be equalled in Europe. There are alſo in their towns many curioſities.

The kingdom of Nepal is, he thinks, very ancient, but was ruined by the diſſentions among the three kings.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* INHABITANTS *of the* GARROW HILLS, *In the* East Indies, *made during a Public Deputation in the Years* 1788 *and* 1789, *by* John Eliot, *Eſq.*

Mr. Eliot, *deputed by Government to inveſtigate the Duties collected on the* Garrow Hills, *which bound the north-eaſtern Parts of* Bengal, *was the firſt European who has travelled among them; and the following remarkable Particulars, which he communicated to the* Aſiatic Society, *appear in the ſecond Volume of their valuable Reſearches.*

THE Mountaineers of India have generally been conſidered as lawleſs ſavages, whoſe buſineſs is pillage, but it will appear that, as in many ſimilar inſtances, an equitable and kind treatment of them is likely to produce a return of peaceable behaviour on their parts.

On approaching the hills, there is a beautiful proſpect of three ranges of mountains riſing above one another, which vaniſh on coming nearer, leaving only the lower range. The country is rich and verdant, and full of ſmall villages. The head people of the villages are called Booneahs At the pais of Ghoſegong, where Mr. Eliot firſt went, Oodaſſey Booneah is looked upon as the head man, but the rightful chief is momee, a woman. The people are thus deſcribed. 'A Garrow is a ſtout well ſhaped man, hardy, and able to do much work; of a ſurly look, flat cafri like noſe, ſmall eyes, generally blue, or brown, forehead wrinkled, and overhanging

* Mr. Shore ſuppoſes they mean Bhagavat, or Criſhna.

eye-

eyebrow, with large mouth, thick lips, and face round and ſhort; their colour is of a light or deep brown; their dreſs conſiſts of a brown girdle, about three inches broad; having in the center a blue ſtripe; it goes round the waiſt, is paſſed between the thighs, and is faſtened behind, leaving one end or flap hanging down before, about eight inches; ſometimes it is ornamented with braſs plates; with rows of ivory or a white ſtone ſhaped like bits of tobacco pipes, about half an inch long; the braſs plate is made to reſemble a button, or an apothecary's weight, but more indented: ſome have it ornamented with little bits of braſs, ſhaped like a bell; ſome wear an ornament on their head about three or five inches broad, decorated in the ſame manner as the flap, ſerving to keep their hair off their face, which gives them a wild fierce appearance. Some tie their hair on the crown, in a looſe careleſs manner, while others crop it cloſe. The Booneahs or chiefs wear a ſilk turban; to the girdle they affix a bag containing their money and pawns, and alſo a net for holding the utenſils with which they light their pipe hung near to it by a chain.

'The women are the ugliеſt creatures I ever beheld, ſhort and ſquat in their ſtature, with maſculine faces, in the features of which they differ little from the men. Their dreſs conſiſts of a dirty red cloth, ſtriped with blue or white, about ſixteen inches broad, which encircles the waiſt, and covers about three fourths of the thigh. It never reaches to the knee, and being but juſt long enough to tie above on the left ſide, part of the left thigh, when they walk, is expoſed. On their necks they have a ſtring of the ornaments above deſcribed reſembling tobacco pipes, twiſted thirty or forty times round, but negligently, without any attention to regularity; their breaſts are expoſed to view, their only cloathing being the girdle above-mentioned; to their ears are affixed numbers of braſs rings, increaſing in diameter from three to ſix inches: I have ſeen thirty of thoſe rings in each ear; a ſlit is made in the lobes of the ear, which increaſe from the weight of the rings, and in time will admit the large number ſtated. This weight is however partly ſupported by a ſtring, which paſſes over their heads; a tape three inches broad ties their hair, ſo as to keep it back from their foreheads, though generally it is tied with a ſtring on the crown of the head. The wives of the Booneahs cover their heads with a piece of coarſe cloth, thirteen or fourteen inches broad and two feet long, the end of which, with their hair, hangs down behind, flowing looſe on their backs. The women work as well as the men, and I have ſeen them carry as great burdens. Their hands, even thoſe of the wives of the Booneahs, bear evident marks of their laborious occupations.

'Theſe people eat all manner of food, even dogs, frogs, ſnakes, and the blood of all animals. The laſt is baked over a ſlow fire in hollow green bamboos, till it becomes of a naſty dirty green colour. They are fond of drinking to an exceſs. Liquor is put into the mouth of infants, almoſt as ſoon as they are able to ſwallow; they have various ſorts of ſpirits, but that moſtly drunk is extracted from rice, ſoaked in water for three or four days before uſe. Their cookery is ſhort, as they only juſt heat their proviſions; excepting rice and guts, the firſt of which is well boiled, and the other ſtewed till they are black. Indeed, excepting theſe, their animal food is eaten almoſt raw.

'In times of ſcarcity many of the hill people ſubſiſt on the kebul which in growth is ſaid to be like the Palmira, and the interior part of the trunk when pounded, and ſteeped in water, is an article of food, inſomuch as to be the common means of ſuſtenance during a ſcarcity of grain. When boiled it is of a gelatinous ſubſtance, and taſtes, when freſh, like a ſugar cane: thoſe, who can afford it, mix rice with it. They alſo ſubſiſt on the

kutchu, a ſort of yam found in great plenty, about the hills. I ſaw three ſorts, though I could not learn they had any ſeparate name. One has a number of buds on it, is ſaid to be a cooling medicine, and is eaten boiled or baked. Some of them I brought with me from the hills, and being bruiſed in the baſket uſed in bringing them from the hills, I cut off the rotten part, which I found to be of no detriment to their growth, although out of the ground. At Dacca I gave them to Mr. Richard Johnſon, who, I underſtand, delivered them to colonel Kyd, the ſuperintendant of the company's botanical garden, where, I hear, they have produced a very handſome flower. This plant was cultivated by the Garrows, nearly in the ſame manner, as we do potatoes in England; a bud being broken off to be ſown for a plant. The Garrows ſay it yields, after it is dug out of the ground, and laid by for the enſuing ſeaſon of cultivation (commencing immediately on the breaking up of the rains) from three to ten buds. Another ſort of kutchu grows on the top of the hills, and is found by its ſprout, which twiſts itſelf round the trunk, and branches of the trees. I have ſeen the ſprout from ten to twenty feet high, the leaves have three ſegments like a vine leaf, but more pointed: of deep green, and very ſmall. The root is found from a foot to two feet and a half below the ground, is in ſhape tapering, of a reddiſh colour, and in length from five inches to a foot and a half: it is eaten roaſted. The other ſpecies grows in the ſame manner, but is of a dirty yellow colour.

'The houſes of theſe Garrows, called chaungs, are raiſed on piles, about three or four feet from the ground, from thirty to 150 feet in length; and in breadth from ten to forty, and are roofed with thatch. The props of the chaung conſiſt of large ſaul timbers: in the center there are eight, and on the ſides from eight to thirty: over theſe are placed horizontally large timbers, for a ſupport to the roof, and tied faſt, ſometimes with ſtrings, but ſtring is rarely uſed for this purpoſe; the tying work being moſtly done with ſlips of graſs or cane. The roof is neatly executed and with as much regularity, as any of our Bungalow thatches. When I ſay this, however, I ſpeak of the chaungs of the Boonsahs: I went into few of the chaungs of the lower claſs. The roof conſiſts of mats and ſtrong graſs. The ſides of the houſe are made from the ſmall hollow bamboos cut open, flatted, and woven as the common mats are. The floor is made in the ſame manner; but of a ſtronger bamboo. The chaung conſiſts of two apartments, one floored and raiſed on piles as deſcribed, and the other without a floor, at one end, for their cattle; at the other end is an open platform, where the women ſit and work. On one ſide is a ſmall raiſed platform, uſually about ſix feet ſquare encloſed at the ſides and open above; here the children play; in the centre of the chaung they cook their victuals, a ſpace of about five feet ſquare being covered with earth; on one ſide a little trap door is made on the floor, for the convenience of the women on certain occaſions, which creates much filth under their chaungs. Indeed a great part of their dirt is thrown under the chaung, and the only ſcavengers I ſaw, were their hogs; but luckily for them, they have plenty of thoſe animals.

'Bugs cover their wearing apparel, of the ſame ſort, as thoſe which infeſt beds in England: during my journey along the hills I ſuffered very much from them.

'The diſpoſition of a Garrow could not be accurately known in the ſhort time I had to obſerve it; yet my intercourſe with them, which was of the moſt open nature, will, I think, allow me to ſay ſomething of it.

'Their ſurly looks ſeem to indicate ill temper, but this is far from being the caſe, as they are of a mild diſpoſition.

diſpoſition. They are, moreover, honeſt in their dealings, and ſure to perform what they promiſe. When in liquor they are merry to the higheſt pitch: then men, women and children will dance till they can ſcarce ſtand. Their manner of dancing is as follows: twenty or thirty men of a row ſtanding behind one another, hold each other by the ſides of their belts, and then go round in a circle, hopping on one foot, then on the other, ſinging and keeping time with the muſic, which is animating, though harſh and inharmonious, conſiſting chiefly of tomtoms, and braſs pans, the firſt generally beaten by the old people, and the laſt by the children. The women dance in rows and hop in the ſame manner, but hold their hands out, lowering one hand and raiſing the other at the ſame time, as the muſic beats, and occaſionally turning round with great rapidity. The men alſo exhibit military exerciſes with the ſword and ſhield, which they uſe with grace and great activity. Their dancing at their feſtivals laſts two or three days, during which time they drink and feaſt to an exceſs, inſomuch that it requires a day or two afterward, to make them perfectly ſober again, yet during this fit of feſtivity and drunkenneſs they never quarrel.

'Marriage is in general ſettled among the parties themſelves, though ſometimes by their parents; if it has been ſettled by the parties themſelves, and the parents of either refuſe their aſſent, the friends of the oppoſite party, and even others unconnected, go and by force compel the diſſenters to comply; it being a rule among the Garrows to aſſiſt thoſe that want their help, on theſe occaſions, let the diſparity of age or rank be ever ſo great. If the parents do not accede to the wiſh of their child, they are well beaten till they acquieſce in the marriage.'

As to the marriage ceremony, it conſiſts, as in moſt nations, ſavage or civilized, in feaſting and dancing. A cock and hen are ſacrificed by a prieſt, from certain circumſtances attending which, omens are drawn of the event of the marriage. Mr. Eliot was witneſs of the whole ceremonial from being preſent at the marriage of the youngeſt daughter of the chief Oodaſſy, aged ſeven, to the ſon of a common Garrow, aged twenty-three; by virtue of which alliance, the man will ſucceed to the Booneaſhip, as the youngeſt daughter is always heireſs.

The dead are burned, and their aſhes put into a hole where the fire was, covered with a ſmall thatched building, and ſurrounded with a railing. A lamp is kept burning in the building a month or more, and the wearing apparel of the deceaſed is hung upon poles round it. If he be a perſon of rank, a bullock is ſacrificed, and its head burned with the corpſe. If he be an upper hill Booneah of common rank, the head of one of his ſlaves would be cut off and burned with it; if one of the firſt rank, his ſlaves ſally out and ſeize a Hindu, whoſe head they cut off and burn with their chief.

Their religion approaches that of the Hindus in the worſhip of Mahadeva. At Baunjaun, a paſs in the hills, they worſhip the ſun and the moon; all their religious ceremonies being preceded by a ſacrifice of a bull, goat, hog, cock, or dog. The animal is put to death by cutting off its head.

'Their mode of ſwearing at Ghoſegong is very ſolemn: the oath is taken upon a ſtone, which they firſt ſalute, then with their hands joined and uplifted, their eyes ſtedfaſtly fixed to the hills, they call on Mahadeva in the moſt ſolemn manner, telling him to witneſs what they declare, and that he knows, whether they ſpeak true or falſe. They then again touch the ſtone with all the appearance of the utmoſt fear, and bow their heads to it, calling again upon Mahadeva. They alſo during their relation, look ſtedfaſtly to the hills and keep their right hand on the ſtone. When the

firſt

firſt perſon ſwore before me, the awe and reverence, with which the man ſwore, forcibly ſtruck me: my moherrir could hardly write, ſo much was he affected by the ſolemnity. In ſome of the hills they put a tyger's bone between their teeth, before they relate the ſubject to be depoſed: others take earth in their hand; and, on ſome occaſions, they ſwear with their weapons in their hands. I underſtand their general belief to be, that their God reſides in the hills; and, though this belief may ſeem inconſiſtent with an awful idea of the divinity, theſe people appeared to ſtand in the utmoſt awe of their deity, from their fear of his puniſhing them for any miſconduct in their frequent excurſions to the hills.'

Their puniſhments conſiſt moſtly in fines, the produce of which is appropriated to feaſting and drinking. Adultery, murder, and robbery are puniſhed with inſtant death. In their deliberations they aſſemble in their war dreſs, and ſitting in a circle, their chiefs diſcuſs the matter, their wives exerting as much authority as themſelves. Their mode of ſettling payments is by ſticks; each of the inferior Garrows places as many ſticks in a pan as he can give of the article required, and the Booneahs make up the deficiencies. They keep their accounts alſo by ſticks.

In caſe of illneſs they make a ſacrifice to the deity, and make uſe of medicines, the greater part of which are charms and amulets. Inoculation is common among them, but appears to have been introduced only of late years. They have a yearly inoculator, whom they liberally reward, and treat with great reſpect. Among the Garrows, a kind of madneſs exiſts, which they call transformation into a tyger, the perſon affected, ſhunning ſociety, and roaming about like that animal. It is probably a ſpecies of melancholy occaſioned by frequent intoxication.

'At the foot of the hills reſide a caſt of people called Hajins; their cuſtoms nearly reſemble the Garrows; in religious matters they partake more of the Hindus, as they will not kill a cow: their habitations are built like the houſes of the ryotts in general, but are better made, encloſed with a court-yard, kept remarkably neat and clean, the railing made of bamboos ſplit, flatted, and joined together; the ſtreets of their villages, equal the neatneſs of their houſes. The men are of a dark complexion, well made and ſtout; their face nearly reſembles the Garrow, though rather of a milder look; their dreſs is the ſame as that of the head peaſants in Bengal, conſiſting of a dootee, egpautah and pugree, or waiſtcloth, mantle, and turban.

'The women are remarkably neat and clean: their dreſs conſiſts of one cloth, made to go near twice round the body and to hang in folds, down to the ancle, covers their breaſts, and paſſes under their arms, and the ends are tucked in as the waiſtcloth of the natives of Bengal: their hair is tied on the crown, and they have earrings in the ſame manner as the Garrow women, but no neck ornament.'

Various PARTICULARS *concerning the* INVENTIONS *of the* BELGIANS.

[From a Diſſertation by Dr P. J. Heylen, in the Memoirs of the Bruſſels Academy of Sciences, Vol. I.]

THE writer divides his matter into three periods; the firſt compriſing the ages before the fall of the Roman empire; the ſecond, from thence to the birth of the emperor Charles V; the third, from that time to the preſent.

The Belgic inventions of the firſt period can only be derived from the ſlight incidental mention of ancient writers.

writers. Thus Pliny ſpeaks of horſe-hair ſieves, and the tinning of brazen veſſels, as invented by the Gauls. The Belgic chariots named Eſſeda and Covinus are alluded to by the poets. The Gauls made a kind of ſoap of ſuet and aſhes for reddening their hair. The Menapian hams or gammons of bacon were as famous anciently as thoſe of Weſtphalia at preſent. Belgic manufactures of woollen and linen were well known in the Roman empire. The Menapii and Morini excelled in the preparation of ſea-ſalt. The Belgians, according to Pliny, tempered ſaws ſo as to cut ſtone like wood.

During the ſecond period, the people of Liege began to work coal mines, of which the firſt notice is in 1189. The Dutch, and the people of Staveren in Frieſeland, are ſaid to have been the firſt mariners who paſſed the ſound in 1089. Martin Behaim, a Fleming, is reported to have diſcovered the Azores before the Portugueſe, and even to have paſſed the Straits of Magellan. The mention of theſe, leads the author to all the other maritime diſcoveries of the Dutch and Belgians, though belonging to a later period; as thoſe of Barentz and Heemſkerk in the Arctic ſeas, of father Hennepin in North America, of Taſman and Diemen in the ſouth ſeas, of Sebald de Weert about the Magellanic regions, of Le Maire and Schouten further ſouthward, and in the Pacific ocean, &c.

The fiſhing of herrings on the Engliſh and Scotch coaſts, was granted to the Dutch by Edward I, in 1295. The art of ſalting and pickling this fiſh, was diſcovered by William Beukels, a native of Biervliet in Flanders.

The art of painting in oil was till lately univerſally attributed to John Van Eyk, a native of Maeſeyk, who firſt mixed colours with linſeed and walnut oil, in 1410. But Heſſing, a German writer, has found in Theophilus, who lived in the eleventh century, a paſſage plainly mentioning the mixture of all kinds of colours with oil, for the purpoſe of painting wood work. Our author, however, contends, that Theophilus had no other idea than that of colouring over in oil, doors, windows, and other objects expoſed to the weather, in order to make the colour durable. It is certain that Cimabue, the reſtorer of painting in Italy, in the thirteenth century, knew nothing of the art.

Encauſtic painting on glaſs, though not invented by the Belgians, was carried by them to the height of perfection.

The invention of printing cannot by any good arguments be attributed to Coſter of Haarlem; yet many of the earlieſt books were printed in Holland and Flanders.

The art of cutting diamonds has been ſaid to be invented at Bruges, but without ſufficient authority.

The art of making tapeſtry was brought from the Levant after the cruſades, but attained its firſt perfection in the different towns of Flanders, as Arras, Bruges, Bruſſels, &c.

The firſt burſe or exchange for merchants was conſtructed at Bruges. 1. That of Antwerp was begun in 1533, and was afterward imitated in the exchange of London.

Muſical chimes of bells are ſaid by L. Guicciardini to have been invented in Belgia, though he does not name the particular inventor. Ringing changes is reported to have been firſt in uſe at Alоſt, in 1487. To this day, there are more ſets of chimes in the Low Countries, than any where elſe.

The amuſement of ſkaiting on the ice, ſeems to be of Belgic origin, and was well known before the age of Charles V.

Of the Belgian inventions of later times, the writer firſt notices warlike machines. The people of Boiſleduc, in the ſiege of a fortreſs, called Poderoy, in 1508, made uſe of a kind of mortar. Hand-granades and bombs were uſed in the wars of the Low Countries, particularly the latter by

count Mansfeldt, in the siege of Breda, in 1625.

Of astronomical and geographical inventions, the universal astrolabe was described by Gemma Frisius, professor at Louvain in the time of Charles V. Huygens discovered one of the satellites of saturn, in 1655. Mercator greatly improved the construction of maps.

The obligations anatomy lies under to Vesalius, Verheyen, and Ruysch, are well known to those versed in that science.

In mechanics, Huygens first discovered the rules of the oscillation of pendulums. Mills for pumping up water, and saw-mills were invented in Holland. Stevinus who made the famous sailing chariot, was a native of Bruges. Bakker of Amsterdam, invented the camel for raising ships in the water.

The telescope was invented in the United Provinces, but in what year, or by whom, is not certain. Some suppose it was at Middleburg in Zeeland, by accident, in 1590.

The microscope was also a Dutch invention, by some given to Corn. Drebbel, in 1621, who certainly was the inventor of the thermometer.

In electricity, the discovery of the Leyden phial was made by accident, in 1746, and related by Muschenbroeck and Allamant.

The writer had forgot among the earlier inventions, to mention that of thread lace, for which Flanders has long been so famous.

HINTS *on* CONTROVERSY *and* CANDOUR.

'Our disputants put me in mind of the scuttle fish, that, when he is unable to extricate himself, blackens all the water about him till he becomes invisible.' SPECTATOR.

DURING the progress of human knowledge, as men are gifted with various portions of faculty, it is naturally to be expected that they will view many things in different lights, and that they will be tenacious of their own conceptions and discoveries. Whether an assiduous enquiry into truth, or only some vague prejudices, the fruit of ignorance and carelessness, contribute to establish differences of opinion, the effect will always be the same. A few open minds will yield to conviction, but far the greater part will retain their own sentiments, although able, perhaps, to give no other reason, than that they are their own.

These differences beget *controversy*, which, political or religious, has prevailed for many centuries. Few points in religion have been so decisively settled as not to be liable to dispute afterward; and many doctrines which were supposed to be consigned to oblivion two centuries ago, have lately been revived and supported with a zeal and learning, which has given them a new importance. In political science, 'all old things appear to have been done away.' And if we believe some people, the world has been totally blind to its true political interests, from the creation to the present time.

During the many controversies, which religion and politics excite, the boast of each party is *candour*. If the contending parties are to be believed, they both possess such a portion of this virtue as must soon lead to an amicable and final determination of the matter in question. But, alas! years roll on; hundreds of volumes are written, and the too general effect is, an irritation of temper, and a great addition of bigotry or obstinacy, while the question remains where it was when first entered upon. The truth is, the want of candour was often attempted to be covered by a specious appearance of it; and, the flimsy veil once taken off, the combatants appeared in their natural colours,

lours; nothing was predominant but pride, self-sufficiency, and mutual contempt. So much hostility has seldom the plea of necessity, most of our warmest controversies being about matters of very little or no essential importance.

A perusal of the principal controversial writings of the last ten years, will shew that I have not spoken widely of the mark, when I said that a want of candour has often destroyed the beneficial consequences to be expected from controversy between men of talents and knowledge. And it is very surprising that such men should be so inattentive to their success, as to be deficient in that which never fails to disarm the stoutest champion who trusts to other weapons. Real candour is so urgent an appeal to the common sense of mankind as never to go without a hearing, while the want of it is so nearly allied to chicanery and untruth, and so generally connected with intemperance and anger, as to enfeeble the best of causes, and render the ablest of disputants ridiculous. If two men are eagerly disputing in a language unknown to us, it will not be difficult to distinguish who has the best of the argument; for it may be laid down as a general maxim, that no man *in a passion* is on the right side.

Truth is wholly independent of ornament, and courts no auxiliary support. To argue well, it is necessary to be a sincere inquirer after truth, and having obtained it, the maintenance of it is easy. Where the point in dispute is merely speculative, where probably as much may be said on one side as on the other, and where many of the greatest and best of men, with the purest intentions, have widely differed, what can be so preposterous and unmanly, as intemperate warmth, and supercilious contempt? Yet, strange to tell! it is on such speculative points that most of our controversies hinge, and which excite those passions which ill become the votaries of truth, and generally bring the cause into contempt.

Some of our disputants open the controversy with such professions of candour, and mutual goodwill, that the reader, or hearer, is insensibly charmed with them, and is happy that at length a disputed point is likely to be discussed with respectful liberality. But he soon discovers his mistake, and is reminded of the practice of the lowest boxers, who shake hands before they begin the fight, not from love, but from ceremony.

Candour is naturally connected with sweetness of temper; and of all the weapons ever employed in controversy, that is the most useful. A man who can regulate his temper seizes every advantage, because he has coolness to *perceive* every advantage; and the same discretion, inclines him to make every proper allowance for the intemperance of his antagonist. His superiority appears in the very first onset; and if he even happens to have the weakest of the argument, if he has imbibed false notions, and now loses the victory, his defeat is attended by no circumstances of disgrace. He had provoked no resentment, and he gave up honourably and calmly what was not tenable. Why such a temper and conduct are not more often to be met with in the field of controversy, it is not easy to conjecture, because it is natural to suppose that men of sense would always incline to that mode of defence which would, in all possible cases, be most successful and honourable.

It is, however, for want of such a temper, that almost all the theological subjects which have apparently been settled, are still open to controversy, as much as when first started. Sometimes, indeed, they are forgotten for a while, but are generally revived by some man who, unable to advance any thing new, thinks he does a great deal by perplexing old arguments by ingenious arrangements. When we see a subject of, perhaps, no great importance, which was thought to be finally determined long ago, revived with all the petulance of assuming bigotry, and affectation of

novelty, we are apt to cry out with Hamlet,

——— 'Tell,
Why thy canonized bones, hearſed in death,
Have burſt their cearments? Why the ſepulchre
Wherein we ſaw thee quietly inurn'd,
Hath op'd his ponderous and marble jaws
To caſt thee up again?'

So reſtleſs are ſome men's minds, that they are never happy but when doubting ſome acknowledged fact, and perplexing others by queſtions above human ability to anſwer. Such men conſume their lives in controverſy, without even ſettling one point, and thus they prevent that eſtabliſhment of principle which leads to action. When I have heard a divine in the pulpit, endeavouring to prove the being of a God, I have thought that he ought to have ordered his congregation into the ſtreet, and locked the doors of the church, until he had proved that it was not abſurd, or that they had a right, to enter into it for public worſhip. Surely that is a point which may be taken for granted, ſince there is not a *rational* being who pretends to diſpute it.

Much good cannot be expected from diſputants, whoſe minds are in a ſtate of irritation, and who are more anxious for the advancement of their own fame, and the diſplay of their talents, than for the propagation of truth. From ſuch men it is not very natural to expect candour, nor perhaps very reaſonable. He who defends or attacks a particular doctrine, merely to ſhew how pertinaciouſly and how *long* he can diſpute, has but a pitiful ambition, at beſt; and if he diſplays either candour or moderation it muſt be by affecting what he cannot poſſeſs or practiſe. Where the motive has little or no connexion with the object, the latter muſt ſuffer in proportion; and where the motive originates in pride and arrogance, it cannot be expected that there will be much ſcruple in employing ſuch means as are correſpondent to ſuch an end.

The cry of moderation has of late years deceived many. But experience has ſhown that it is not ſo much the attribute of the individual as the watchword of a party. Some of the greateſt bigots, and implacable diſputants of our day, affect to be called moderate men, and aſſume all the conſequent virtues of a Chriſtian ſpirit, candour and impartiality. To ſuch men I would only apply an old ſtory: A gentleman aſked another whether Mr. —— was not a *moderate man*.— 'O yes,' ſaid he, '*fierce* for *moderation*.'

P. T.

NOURMAHALL, *or the* QUEEN *of the* INDIES; *a Turkiſh Tale.*

[From 'Turkiſh Tales,' in two Vol. by J. Moſer.]

PART I.

IT is recorded that the great mogul, Gehan guir, was ſo paſſionate an admirer of beautiful women, that he employed the greateſt aſſiduity to render himſelf agreeable to them, and beſtowed the moſt liberal rewards upon thoſe who made it their buſineſs to procure them. With ſuch propenſities and generoſity, it is little to be wondered, that the haram of that monarch was filled with beauties from all parts of the eaſtern world.

When he had ſpent ſome years in the deſultory gallantry, and effeminate pleaſures, of the ſeraglio; when he was nearly ſatiated with the unintereſting luxuries around him, and his ideas roved abroad; while he ſighed for ſtill greater variety, the god of love, grieved at the deſpondence of ſo faithful a ſubject, contrived to revive his paſſion by the following circumſtance:

As he was one day ſitting in his council-chamber, the officer that attended at the great door, entered and informed

informed him, that two ladies waited in the antichamber, having a petition to deliver, which they wished to present to the sultan in person.

Astonished at the singularity of the request, as coming from females, after pausing a few moments, he ordered them to be admitted.

The first that entered appeared of a middle age: she advanced to the foot of the throne, and presenting a paper —'Receive,' said she, 'illustrious Gehan-guir, sublime lord of the universe, the petition of the distressed wife and daughter of Ibraham, the Persian captain, who has fallen under your displeasure, for the part he took in the rebellion of Merodac, your son, and who now languishes in prison, hourly expecting that death—' 'Which is due to his perfidy and ingratitude,' said the sultan,' while fire flashed from his eyes. 'Such a monster of treason has lived too long,' he continued, rising in a rage; 'and he shall instantly meet his fate.'—He stepped from the throne, and was calling to the officer to order immediate execution, when the fatal decree died upon his tongue, and all his faculties were absorbed in admiration of the beauty of the younger lady, who had thrown aside her veil, and now knelt before him.

'Mercy! mercy!' she cried, in a voice that found its way to the heart of the sultan. 'The daughter of the unhappy, of the guilty Ibraham, intreats you to extend your mercy, and spare the life of her father.'

While she spoke this, in the most impassioned accents, the tears fell from her lovely eyes upon her bosom, which a slight gauze covering but half concealed, and which throbbed with such emotion, while her whole frame seemed disordered with grief, that the monarch, attacked on the side where he was most assailable, raised her up, and folding her in his arms, said, 'Let Ibraham go free; be you his lovely surety; from this instant the Persian may range at large; his crimes are forgiven; but as his daughter is the cause of my revocation of a solemn decree, I am determined to retain her prisoner.'

He gave immediate orders for the liberation of the captain; and while his wife went to meet and congratulate him upon his release, his daughter was conducted into the seraglio, where she had magnificent apartments assigned to her; and in a short time her father was promoted to the rank of general in the army of Indostan.

Though the daughter of Ibraham at this period was scarcely sixteen, she was a young lady of a sublime and elevated genius. Perhaps it was foreseen by her parents, that her beauty would one day place her in her present situation, and therefore no pains had been spared to qualify her to adorn it. As she perceived, moreover, the monarch was not merely struck, but that he even idolized her charms, she used every means to increase his passion. She studied his temper with great attention, and finding that he delighted in shews and festivities, she applied to all the artists which the luxurious city of Delhi afforded; invited from all parts of the empire those who had talents to execute the magnificent plans she invented, who could increase the splendour of the ball, or add to the conviviality of the banquet.

The vast hall of the seraglio was decorated with the greatest magnificence, and became a splendid theatre. Here the plays, masquerades and balls, succeeded each other; and the daughter of Ibraham shone as the principal character. In the other apartments, her exalted genius equally was displayed: the painter, sculptor, and architect, vied with each other, and Gehan-guir beheld, with surprise, a new creation rising around him. While the eyes of the monarch turned upon these objects with admiration, his taste was not neglected. Under her influence the delights and festivities of the table were increased, and in whatever she undertook, she discovered new attractions. The elegance

of

of her manners, and the entertainment of her converſation, had, by this time, gained ſuch an aſcendant over the heart of the ſultan, that he publicly married her; giving her, at the ſame time, the name of Nourmahall, which ſignifies the light of the ſeraglio.

Being now advanced to within one ſtep of the top of fortune's ladder; enjoying all the pleaſures which her elevated ſituation afforded; idolized by her huſband, worſhipped by the minions around, and applauded by the Indian nation, who could ſuppoſe that in the heart of the lovely Nourmahall one wiſh remained ungratified? But ſo equal is the diſtribution of Providence, with reſpect to good and evil, joy and ſorrow, that we find the power and opulence annexed to a throne, are incapable of ſhielding the boſom from the ſecret pang; that the bed of ſtate is not more likely to promote repoſe than the bed of ſtraw; or that the imperial domes of the palace are no better ſhelter from the ſtorms of fortune than the lowly roof of the cottage.

This was exemplified in Nourmahall, from whoſe lovely boſom the riſing ſigh was frequently waſted to heaven, amid all the ſplendour and luxury with which ſhe was ſurrounded.

'What a glorious fate! what a delightful ſituation would mine be,' ſhe would often ſay, 'could I but render it permanent! could I but ſecure to myſelf the continuance of power after the decline of beauty! as beauty,' ſhe ſighed again, 'we all know will decline, I ſhould be completely happy!—But while I am looking forward to an event which cannot happen for many, many years,' ſhe continued, turning to her mirror with a ſmile, 'I forget that my preſent happineſs is ſuſpended by a hair, a breath may deſtroy it; the event of a moment, accident, inebriety, or fatigue, may cut the thread of the ſultan's exiſtence, and by the ſons of Gehan-guir, who can now ſcarcely conceal their hatred, I may, in an inſtant, be hurled from this elevated ſituation, and fall to one much lower than that from which I roſe.'

The terror ariſing from thoughts like theſe, daily and nightly haunted the queen: and in fears for events that might be impending, the paſſing hour (though ſhe aſſumed the ſemblance of gaiety and mirth) afforded her but little enjoyment.

Gehan guir had two ſons. With the young princes he had formerly lived upon affectionate terms. The eldeſt had lately rebelled againſt his father, who, at the time he condemned Ibraham, the Perſian captain, to death, puniſhed him by a deprivation of ſight. The youngeſt, Kouram, lived at a diſtance from the capital, in a large province that had been beſtowed upon him; and which rendered him in ſome degree independent of his father.

The queen looked upon the ſituation of this young man with extreme jealouſy. His elevation to the Indian throne, by the death of her huſband, was a circumſtance that hourly preſented itſelf to her imagination.

To ward off this imaginary evil, ſhe redoubled her efforts to engage the heart, and triumph over the mind of the ſultan; and her fertile genius varied his amuſements every day. On one, the pleaſures of the chace were to be purſued; the deer were driven into a vaſt incloſure, a ſhining troop of courtiers were collected, at the head of whom, mounted upon a moſt beautiful white Arabian courſer, Nourmahall appeared. Her attire was of a vivid green Perſian ſilk, faſtened under the boſom, and at the wriſts, with diamond claſps; her head was adorned with a diadem of precious ſtones, ſurmounted by a brilliant creſcent, from which ſprung a plume of white oſtrich feathers, that were finely contraſted with a redundance of beautiful black treſſes, ſome of which were braided with ſtrings of pearl, while others fell looſe upon her ſhouſders. From the back of her

head

head hung a veil of white muſlin, chequered with gold, which, floating in the air, half concealed a brilliant quiver, that hung from her ſhoulder. Over her ſteed, who ſeemed equally proud of his magnificent trappings, and of his lovely burden, hung a ſilver net: his bit was of gold, and his bridle and ſtirrups ſet with rubies. When ſhe gallopped over the plain, Gehan-guir was enchanted to behold the eaſe with which ſhe managed her courſer; and in her agility and dreſs he diſcovered new attractions.

In the evening, when ſhe led the jocund band that formed the ballet, ſhe moved over the ſtage with the aerial grace and lightneſs of a ſylph; in an under dreſs of pink ſatin, fitted to her ſhape, over which a looſe drapery of ſilver gauze diſcovered her elegant form, as the zephyrs, which the motions of the dance excited, developed the folds. The tiara had given place to a wreath of flowers round her head; her hair was tied with bows of white and ſilver ribbands; and the only jewel ſhe wore was the diamond creſcent, over which the plumes of the peacock waved in luxuriant gaiety.

Other days were dedicated to aquatic amuſements. A ſuperb veſſel was launched upon the immenſe lake in the garden; beautiful children were attired as cupids, who hung upon the ſhrouds; and while her attendants took the dreſs of water nymphs, ſhe aſſumed the character of Cleopatra. Smaller boats attended, from which a concert of vocal and inſtrumental muſic floated in the breeze. Exhibitions of the moſt magnificent fire-works, the banquet, and the maſque, concluded the day.

When the weather did not permit the pleaſures of the fields and gardens, the literati were aſſembled in the ſaloon; and prizes were given for the compoſition and recitation of poetry, and other works of genius. After different ſpecimens had been applauded, the queen produced hers: they were found ſuperior to the others, and the prize adjudged to her: ſhe received the honour, but preſented the reward to thoſe whoſe pieces were next in merit.

Amid ſuch a variety of amuſements, the attention of Gehan-guir was continually attracted to Nourmahall. He lived but in her ſight, and his ſpirits were kept perpetually afloat, in the purſuit or enjoyment of ſome object of diſſipation. He left the government of his extenſive dominions, in a great meaſure to the queen; but that would not ſatisfy the ambitious, the towering genius of Nourmahall. She ſighed for more extenſive power, and the pleaſures of deſpotic ſway had made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion upon her mind, that ſhe reſolved to urge the ſultan to relinquiſh his throne to her, if it were but for a few hours.

The diſaffection of his ſon, Kouram, gave her a pretence to carry part of her plan into execution; and as he had fled, and joined ſome rebellious rajahs, and by their means the capital was kept in continual alarm, it induced the effeminate monarch to retire to one of his palaces, where he was more out of the reach of danger.

As Nourmahall never loſt ſight of the dazzling object, which abſolute power preſented to her mind, this was exactly what ſhe wiſhed. Here the pleaſures and luxuries, which had reigned in the capital were renewed; and as Gehan-guir daily grew fonder of the delights of the table, the moſt ſumptuous entertainments were prepared.

It was at one of theſe feſtivals, when the monarch had freely indulged, and ſhe had enchanted him by her execution on the lute, accompanied by her voice, and further to inflame his paſſions, danced before him, that the ſultan, who was in the height of good humour, deſired her to ſit by him; at the ſame time declaring, that he loved her far beyond any of the numerous beauties of the ſeraglio; that although he was at firſt faſcinated with her charms, his chains had been rivetted by her exalted genius,

nius, and cultivated mind; and therefore he was reſolved to grant her any favour ſhe ſhould aſk.

Nourmahall, ſeeing the ſultan ſo highly enamoured of her, thought this a favourable opportunity to urge her requeſt; and with trembling and heſitation ſhe began:

'If it is true, O Gehan-guir! and from my own feelings I have great reaſon to believe it, that the idol of the female heart is power, and I am permitted to aſk a favour that would pleaſe me beſt; you will, perhaps, conceive for what I ſhould petition; you will, perhaps, anticipate the wiſh of Nourmahall; if you do not, how ſhall I ſpeak it, unleſs encouragad by you?' The monarch waved his hand, and ſhe proceeded: 'Though born in a ſituation comparatively low to that which I now enjoy, my expanded mind, my elevated ſoul, has always looked up with ſome degree of envy to the eaſtern thrones, from which the monarchs, ſecond only to Omnipotence, iſſue their immutable decrees, and rule with deſpotic ſway. Often, in my juvenile years, have I ſaid, how happy muſt thoſe mortals be whoſe words are as fixed as fate! and as by your favour I have been brought nearer to the throne, the ardour of my deſires to poſſeſs abſolute power has increaſed. Could I but reign uncontrolled, I have often ſaid, though but for a ſhort ſpace, I ſhould be completely bleſt. Therefore, O ſultan! let your faithful Nourmahall become a deſpotic monarch for the ſpace of twenty-four hours; let her taſte the ſweets of unlimited power, and in that ſhall every wiſh of her heart be gratified.'

Surpriſe at her requeſt baniſhed mirth from the countenance of the monarch, who not chooſing peremptorily to refuſe, endeavoured to evade her entreaty, by ſaying, that in a matter of ſuch immenſe conſequence, whatever diſpoſition he might have to indulge her, it would be neceſſary to give the ſubject a few days conſideration.

During the former part of this period, the voluptuous and effeminate Gehan-guir was abſorbed in melancholy, of which the artful Nourmahall took no notice, but continued her amuſements and entertainments; ſurrounding him with every object, which her fertile invention judged likely to captivate his ſenſes.

Four days the monarch revolved within his own mind the importance of the requeſt; but on the fifth (no longer able to hold out againſt her allurements) he ſaid, 'You have conquered, O Nourmahall! I will retire for twenty-four hours from the throne, and during that time abſolute power ſhall be yours.'

Notice was accordingly ſent to all the provinces, and when they were apprized of the event, the ſultan ſummoning the grandees, and all the different ſtates of the empire, preſented the queen to them, and leading her to the throne; when ſhe was ſeated, he ſtood upon the ſteps of it, and ſaid:

Princes, khans, rajas, potentates, and powers, behold your monarch, whom I command you to obey. The orders you receive from her I expect you to execute with the ſame diligence, affection, and reverence, as if you had them from myſelf.'

He then made a profound obeiſance to the queen, and retired, amid the ſhouts and acclamations of the people, who rent the air with cries of 'Long live Nourmahall!' while the cannon reſounded from the battlements, and reverberated through the lofty domes of the ſeraglio.

The beautiful ſultana having thus attained the height of her wiſhes, was reſolved to perpetuate the remembrance of it.

While this event was in contemplation in her own mind, ſhe had employed artiſts to prepare dies, and had collected vaſt ſtores of gold and ſilver, in the mints of the different cities; and the moment ſhe mounted the throne ſhe commanded that they ſhould coin immenſe quantities of rupees

rupees.—To make them the more remarkable (though contrary to the law of Mahomet) she had twelve different species, each of which had one of the signs of the zodiac, with her name stamped upon the face; the reverse bore that of Gehan guir; and so artfully and secretly had this business been conducted, that during her short reign they were sent to all parts of the empire.

Being thus assured that her name, as an imperial sovereign, would reach posterity, she resolved to effect a reform, which would, in some degree, insure the stability of the throne, while it proved her abilities for the task she had undertaken. She had, during the period she had been at court, taken every opportunity to get information, respecting the talents, the connexions, the views, and even the tempers, of the grandees, especially those employed in the army, or the government of distant provinces. She saw that many of them had accumulated preferments and riches on themselves, and their dependants, till, despising the imbecile temper of the sultan, they had become terrific to the empire. Taking a list in her hand, which she had well considered, and touching the names with her sceptre, one hour displaced the refractory, and the next filled up the vacancies with such, as, from the same penetration, she judged could be depended upon.

In the treasury, the law, every department of the state, she made the same reformation; her orders, whether from the admiration their novelty excited, or the wisdom that attended them, were obeyed with alacrity; and the laws and regulations of Nourmahall pervaded the whole kingdom.

In the morning the states again assembled; the sultan seated himself upon the throne; he heard, with wonder and admiration, the acts of the queen; and he had the wisdom to discover, that many of them tended to the safety of his empire; others to increase the happiness of his subjects; and in that, respecting the coinage, he admired an elevated mind panting to reach posterity. He, therefore, when she advanced to deliver him the sceptre, took her hand, saying 'Share, O lovely Nourmahall! share with me the honours and cares of a situation you are so well calculated to adorn. From this moment,' continued he, placing her beside him, 'you reign my equal in the government; though I have little doubt, but in the active and executive part of it, your sublime and elevated mind will rise as superior to mine, as your beauty, genius, and elegance, are to those of any of my subjects.'

From that time, the situation which the queen had so ardently desired, was secured to her during the life of Gehan-guir.

[To be concluded in our next.]

Account of some remarkable CAVES *in the Principality of* BAYREUTH, *and of the* FOSSIL BONES *found therein. Extracted from a Paper sent, with Specimens of the Bones, as a Present to the* Royal Society, *by his most Serene Highness the Margrave of* Anspach, *&c.*

[From the Philosophical Transactions, for 1794.]

A RIDGE of primeval mountains runs almost through Germany, in a direction nearly from west to east; the Hartz, the mountains of Thuringia, the Fichtelberg in Franconia are different parts of it, which in their farther extent constitute the Riesenberg, and join the Carpathian mountains; the highest parts of this ridge are granite, and are flanked by alluvial and stratified mountains, consisting chiefly of limestone, marl and sandstone; such at least is the tract of hills in which the caves to be spoken of are situated, and over these the main road leads from Bayreuth to

Erlang, or Nuremberg. Half way to this town lies Streitberg, where there is a poſt, and but three or four Engliſh miles diſtant from thence are the caves mentioned, near Gailenreuth and Klauſtein, two ſmall villages, inſignificant in themſelves, but become famous for the diſcoveries made in their neighbourhood.

The tract of hills is there broken off by many ſmall and narrow vallies, confined moſtly by ſteep and high rocks, here and there overhanging, and threatening, as it were, to fall and cruſh all beneath; and every where thereabouts are to be met with objects, which ſuggeſts the idea of their being evident veſtiges of ſome general and mighty cataſtrophe which happened in the primeval times of the globe.

The ſtrata of theſe hills conſiſt chiefly of limeſtone of various colour and texture, or of marl and ſandſtones. The tract of limeſtone hills abounds with petrifactions of various kinds.

The main entrance to the caves at Gailenreuth opens near the ſummit of a limeſtone hill toward the eaſt. An arch, near ſeven feet high, leads into a kind of antichamber, eighty feet in length, and 300 feet in circumference, which conſtitutes the veſtibule of four other caves. This antichamber is lofty and airy, but has no light except what enters by its open arch; its bottom is level, and covered with black mould; although the common ſoil of the environs is loam and marl.

By ſeveral circumſtances it appears, that it has been made uſe of in turbulent times as a place of refuge.

From this veſtibule, or firſt cave, a dark and narrow alley opens in the corner at the ſouth end, and leads into the ſecond cave, which is about ſixty feet long, eighteen high, and forty broad. Its ſides and roof are covered, in a wild and rough manner, with ſtalactites, columns of which are hanging from the roof, others riſing from the bottom, meeting the firſt in many whimſical ſhapes.

The air of this cave, as well as of all the reſt, is always cool, and has, even in the height of ſummer, been found below temperate. Caution is therefore neceſſary to its viſitors; for it is remarkable, that people having ſpent any time in this or the other caverns, always on their coming out again appear pale, which in part may be owing to the coolneſs of the air, and in part likewiſe to the particular exhalations within the caves. A very narrow, winding, and troubleſome paſſage opens farther into a

Third cave, or chamber of a roundiſh form, and about thirty feet diameter, covered all over with ſtalactites. Very near its entrance there is a perpendicular deſcent of about twenty feet, into a dark and frightful abyſs; a ladder muſt be brought to deſcend into it, and caution is neceſſary in uſing it, on account of the rough and ſlippery ſtalactites. When you are down, you enter into a gloomy cave of about fifteen feet diameter, and thirty feet high, making properly but a ſegment of the third cave.

In the paſſage to this third cave, ſome teeth and fragments of bones are found; but coming down to the pit of the cave, you are every way ſurrounded by a vaſt heap of animal remains. The bottom of this cave is pavod with a ſtalactical cruſt of near a foot in thickneſs; large and ſmall fragments of all ſorts of bones are ſcattered every where on the ſurface of the ground, or are eaſily drawn out of the mouldering rubbiſh. The very walls ſeem filled with various and innumerable teeth and broken bones. The ſtalactical covering of the uneven ſides of the cave does not reach quite down to its bottom, whereby it plainly appears that this vaſt collection of animal rubbiſh, ſome time ago filled a higher ſpace in the cave, before the bulk of it ſunk by mouldering.

This place is in appearance very like a large quarry of ſandſtones; and indeed the largeſt and fineſt blocks of oſteolithical concretes might be hewn out in any number, if there was but room enough to come to them, and to

to carry them out. This bony rock has been dug into in different places, and every where undoubted proofs have been met with, that its bed, or this oſteolithical ſtratum, extends every way far beneath and through the lime-ſtone rock, into which and through which theſe caverns have been made, ſo that the queries ſuggeſting themſelves about the aſtoniſhing numbers of animals buried here confound all ſpeculation.

Along the ſides of this third cavern there are ſome narrower openings, leading into different ſmaller chambers, of which it cannot be ſaid how deep they go. In ſome of them, bones of ſmaller animals have been found, ſuch as jaw-bones, vertebræ, and tibiæ, in large heaps. The bottom of this cave ſlopes toward a paſſage ſeven feet high, and about as wide, being the entrance to a

Fourth cave, twenty feet high, and fifteen wide, lined all round with a ſtalactical cruſt, and gradually ſloping to another ſteep deſcent, where the ladder is wanted a ſecond time, and muſt be uſed with caution as before, in order to get into a cave forty feet high, and about half as wide. In thoſe deep and ſpacious hollows, worked out through the moſt ſolid maſs of rock, you again perceive with aſtoniſhment, immenſe numbers of bony fragments of all kinds and ſizes, ſticking every where in the ſides of the cave, or lying on the bottom. This cave alſo is ſurrounded by ſeveral ſmaller ones; in one of them riſes a ſtalactite of uncommon bigneſs, being four feet high, and eight feet diameter, in the form of a truncated cone. In another of thoſe ſide grottoes, a very neat ſtalactical pillar preſents itſelf, five feet in height, and eight inches in diameter.

The bottom of all theſe grottoes is covered with true animal mould, but of which may be dug fragments of bones.

Beſide the ſmaller hollows, ſpoken of before, round this fourth cave, a very narrow opening has been diſcovered in one of its corners. It is of very difficult acceſs, as it can be entered only in a crawling poſture. This diſmal and dangerous paſſage leads into a fifth cave, of near thirty feet high, forty-three long, and of unequal breadth. To the depth of ſix feet this cave has been dug, and nothing has been found but fragments of bones, and animal mould: the ſides are finely decorated with ſtalactites of different forms and colours; but even this ſtalactical cruſt is filled with fragments of bones ſticking in it, up to the very roof.

From this remarkable cave, another very low and narrow avenue leads into the laſt diſcovered, or the

Sixth cave, not very large, and merely covered with a ſtalactical cruſt, in which, however, here and there bones are ſeen ſticking. And here ends this connected ſeries of moſt remarkable oſteolithical caverns, as far as they have been hitherto explored; many more may for what we know exiſt, hidden, in the ſame tract of hills.

Mr. Eſper has written a hiſtory in German of theſe caves; and given deſcriptions and plates of a great number of the foſſil bones which have been found there. To this work we muſt refer for a more particular account of them.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* FOSSIL BONES, *preſented to the* Royal Society, *by his moſt Serene Highneſs the Margrave of* Anſpach, *&c. By the late* John Hunter, *Eſq. F. R. S.*

[From the SAME.]

THE bones which are the ſubject of the preſent paper, are to be conſidered more in the light of incruſtations than extraneous foſſils, ſince their external ſurface has only acquired a covering of cryſtallized

earth, and little or no change has taken place in their internal structure.

The earths with which bones are most commonly incrusted are the calcareous argillaceous, and siliceous, but principally the calcareous, and this happens in two ways: one, the bones being immersed in water in which the earth is suspended; the other, water passing through masses of this earth, which it dissolves, and afterward deposits upon bones which lie underneath.

Bones which are incrusted seem never to undergo this change in the earth, or under the water, where the soft parts were destroyed; while bones that are fossilized become so in the medium in which they were deposited * at the animal's death. The incrusted bones have been previously exposed to the open air; this is evidently the case with the bones at present under consideration, those of the rock of Gibraltar, and those found in Dalmatia; and from the account given by the abbé Spalazani, those of the island of Cerigo are under the same circumstances. They have the characters of exposed bones, and many of them are cracked in a number of places, particularly the cylindrical bones, similar to the effects of long exposure to the sun. This circumstance appears to distinguish them from fossilized bones, and gives us some information respecting their history.

If their numbers had corresponded with what we meet with of recent bones, we might have been led to some opinion of their mode of accumulation; but the quantity exceeds any thing we can form an idea of. In an inquiry into their history three questions naturally arise: did the animals come there, and die? or were their bodies brought there, and lay exposed? or were the ones collected from different places? The first of these conjectures appears to me the most natural; but yet I am by no means convinced of its being the true one.

Bones of this description are found in very different situations, which makes their present state more difficultly accounted for. Those in Germany are found in caves. The coast of Dalmatia is said to be almost wholly formed of them, and we know that this is the case with a large portion of the rock of Gibraltar.

If none were found in caves, but in solid masses covered with marl or limestone, it would then give the idea of their having been brought together by some strange cause, as a convulsion in the earth, which threw these materials over them; but this we can hardly form an idea of; or if they had all been found in caves, we should have imagined these caves were places of retreat for such animals, and had been so for some thousands of years; and if the bones were those of carnivorous animals and herbivorous, we might have supposed that the carnivorous had brought in many animals of a smaller size which they caught for food; and this, upon the first view, appears to have been the case with those which are the subject of this paper; yet when we consider that the bones are principally of carnivorous animals, we are confined to the supposition of their being only places of retreat. If they had been brought together by any convulsion of the earth, they would have been mixed with the surrounding materials of the mountains, which does not appear to be the case; for although some are found sticking in the sides of the caves incrusted in calcareous matter, this seems to have arisen from their situation in the cave. Such accumulation would have made them coeval with the mountains themselves, which from the recent state of the bones I should very much doubt.

The difference in the state of the bones shows that there was probably

* Bones that have been buried with the flesh on, acquire a stain which they never lose; and those which have been long immersed in water, receive a considerable tinge.

a suc-

a ſucceſſion of them for a vaſt ſeries of years; for if we conſider the diſtance of time between the moſt perfect having been depoſited, which we muſt ſuppoſe were the laſt, and the preſent time, we muſt conſider it to be many thouſand years; and if we calculate how long theſe muſt ſtill remain to be as far decayed as ſome others are, it will require many thouſand years, a ſufficient time for a vaſt accumulation: from this mode of reaſoning, therefore, it would appear that they were not brought here at once in a recent ſtate.

The animal earth, as it is called, at the bottom of theſe caves, is ſuppoſed to be produced by the rotting of the fleſh, which is ſuppoſing the animals brought there with the fleſh on; but I do conceive, that if the caves had been ſtuffed with whole animals, the fleſh could not have produced one-tenth part of the earth, and to account for ſuch a quantity as appears to be the produce of animals, I ſhould ſuppoſe it the remains of the dung of animals who inhabited the caves, and the contents of the bowels of thoſe they lived upon. This is eaſily conceived from knowing that there is ſomething ſimilar to it, in a ſmaller degree, in many caves in this kingdom, which are places of retreat for bats in the winter, and even in the ſummer, as they only go abroad in the evenings; theſe caves have their bottoms covered with animal earth, for ſome feet in depth, in all degrees of decompoſition, the lowermoſt the moſt pure, and the uppermoſt but little changed, with all the intermediate degrees; in which caves are formed a vaſt number of ſtalactites, which might incruſt the bones of thoſe that die there.

The bones in the caves in Germany are ſo much the object of the curious, that the ſpecimens are diſperſed throughout Europe, which prevents a ſufficient number coming into the hands of any one perſon to make him acquainted with the animals to which they belong.

From the hiſtory and figures given by Eſper, it appears that there are the bones of ſeveral animals; but what is curious, they all appear to have been carnivorous, which we ſhould not have expected. There are teeth in number, kind, and mode of ſetting, exactly ſimilar to the white bear; others more like thoſe of the lion; but the repreſentations of parts, however well executed, are hardly to be truſted to for the nicer characters, and much leſs ſo when the parts are mutilated.

The bones ſent by his highneſs the Margrave of Anſpach agree with thoſe deſcribed and delineated by Eſper as belonging to the white bear; how far they are of the ſame ſpecies among themſelves, I cannot ſay; the heads differ in ſhape from each other; they are, upon the whole, much longer for their breadth than in any carnivorous animal I know of; they alſo differ from the preſent white bear, which, as far as I have ſeen, has a common proportional breadth; it is ſuppoſed, indeed, that the heads of the preſent white bear differ from one another, but the truth of this aſſertion I have not ſeen heads enough of that animal to determine.

The heads not only vary in ſhape, but alſo in ſize, for ſome of them, when compared with the recent white bear, would ſeem to have belonged to an animal twice its ſize, while ſome of the bones correſpond in ſize with thoſe of the white bear, and others are even ſmaller *.

There are two oſſa humeri, rather of a leſs ſize than thoſe of the recent white bear; a firſt vertebra, rather ſmaller; the teeth alſo vary conſiderably in ſize, yet they are all thoſe of the ſame tribe; ſo that the variety among themſelves is not leſs than between them and the recent. In the

* It is to be underſtood, that the bones of the white bear that I have, belonged to one that had been a ſhow, and had not grown to the full or natural ſize; and I make allowance for this in my aſſertion, that the heads of thoſe incruſted appear to belong to an animal twice the ſize of our white bear.

formation

In incruſted bones, the quantity of animal ſubſtance is very different in different bones. In thoſe from Gibraltar there is very little; it in part retains its tenacity, and is tranſparent, but the ſuperficial part diſſolves into mucus.

Thoſe from Dalmatia give ſimilar reſults when examined in this way.

Thoſe from Germany, eſpecially the harder bones and teeth, ſeem to contain all the animal ſubſtance natural to them, they differ however among themſelves in this reſpect.

The bones of land animals have their calcareous earth united with the phoſphoric acid inſtead of the aerial, and I believe, retain it when foſſilized, nearly in proportion to the quantity of animal matter they contain.

The mode by which I judge of this, is by the quantity of effervescence; when foſſil bones are put into the muriatic acid it is not nearly ſo great as when a ſhell is put into it, but it is more in ſome, although not in all, than when a recent bone is treated in this way, and this I think diminiſhes in proportion to the quantity of animal ſubſtance they retain; as a proof of this, thoſe foſſil bones which contain a ſmall portion of animal matter, produce in an acid the greateſt effervescence when the ſurface is acted on, and very little when the centre is affected by it; however, this may be accounted for by the parts which have loſt their phoſphoric acid, and acquired the aerial, being eaſieſt of ſolution in the marine acid, and therefore diſſolved firſt, and the aerial acid let looſe.

In ſome bones of the whale the effervescence is very great; in the Dalmatia and Gibraltar bones it is leſs; and in thoſe the ſubject of the preſent paper it is very little, ſince they contain by much the largeſt proportion of animal ſubſtance.

ON THE CONVENIENCE OF COUGHING.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

THERE are few diſorders incident to the human frame, which people ſeem more deſirous of curing than a *cough*. For their timidity, in this reſpect, I never could obtain a proper reaſon. Coughing is, unqueſtionably, in ſome caſes, attended with a degree of pain; but, have we actually arrived at an age of light, and reaſon, and philoſophy, and yet cannot endure a little pain? Granting that the pain is on ſome occaſions troubleſome; or granting that it is, on thoſe occaſions, much greater than it has been repreſented; is there nothing to balance it? Is not the poſſeſſion of a cough, and the liberty of uſing it when we pleaſe, an advantage of the firſt importance? It is, indeed, ſo valuable a ſubſtitute for ſpeech, that I do not ſee how we can part with it, without ſuppreſſing thoſe opinions which we are not allowed to give in words.

The great utility of *coughing* appears principally in the ſenate, the pulpit, and at the bar. To begin with the ſenate. Suppoſe a member has made a ſpeech ſo long as to become tireſome, and ſo dull as to create no intereſt, and that he ſtill perſiſts in wearing out the patience of his hearers, what are they to do? None of them dare interrupt him in words; not even the ſpeaker of the houſe himſelf can requeſt him to conclude before he pleaſes. What then is to be done? Why, ſir, half a dozen, or a dozen of his brethren, begin a coughing *chorus* which they repeat until he is completely put to ſilence. And it very fortunately happens that this venerable aſſembly hold their ſittings in winter, when coughs are more frequent than at any other ſeaſon, and when, conſequently, a member may provide himſelf with this method of reply, at a very eaſy rate.

In the church, coughing is of conſiderable ſervice. If the Rev. Mr.

A ——, or the dean of B——, or the biſhop of C——, happen to ſay any thing which ſeems to allude to a perſon, or perſons preſent, they can immediately communicate their opinions to one another by a gentle, tickling cough, aye, and underſtand each other through a whole dialogue, at the expence of the preacher, who thinks, poor man! that their lungs are touched; whereas it is only their conſciences.

At the bar, during the harangue of ſome able and eloquent lawyer, I have often heard a clandeſtine cough between his opponent and the jury, which was tranſlated into very plain Engliſh when they came to give their verdict. Winks and nods, any perſon may detect, but the language of coughing is confined to your old practitioners.

In the private intercourſes of life, the advantages of coughing have, I dare ſay, been experienced by moſt perſons, who will honour this letter with a peruſal. At the tea-table, when characters come to be diſcuſſed, upon which occaſion it may not be always ſafe to ſpeak out, a cough ſupplies the want of words. Praiſe an abſent character, and accompany your words with a proper intermixture of coughing, and the company will immediately underſtand that you mean the very reverſe of what you ſay. In another caſe, when a perſon advances any thing to which you are not diſpoſed to aſſent, but which, for certain reaſons, you muſt not contradict, a cough will explain your intention very fully. This is particularly uſeful when liſtening to what old aunts and uncles advance, from whom we have great expectations, and who, therefore, muſt not be thwarted. It will likewiſe often happen that we are tempted to laugh, and yet muſt ſuppreſs it; this is exceedingly painful, eſpecially when we ſee another perſon in the ſame ſituation. The laugh begins involuntarily; but any expert perſon may ſoon change it into a fit of coughing, and when he is nearly black in the face, who will dare to diſpute the ſeverity of the diſeaſe?

In playing at cards, I know, from experience, that coughing is much reſorted to, although I can by no means defend any practice that is unfair. The Tabithas and Dorothys, however, do not ſcruple to inform each other of the ſtate of their hands by means of a gentle coughing *duet*, intelligible only to themſelves. I am convinced I have loſt many a game becauſe my opponents were not provided with pectoral lozenges, or ſat with their back to the door, or ſlept with a window open, or ſome other cauſe; while I well know they would not have parted with their cough for five ſhillings *per* night.

I have thus, ſir, ſet down at random ſome of the advantages of coughing; and I hope that the ingenious gentleman, who executes the medical department of your magazine, will hereafter mention this diſorder with a becoming tenderneſs, and not hint at a cure, which, I am perſuaded, would be to all the perſonages abovementioned a very great misfortune.

I am, ſir, &c.

TUSSIPHILUS.

An Hiſtorical Account of the THEATRE ROYAL *in* DRURY-LANE: *With a Plan of the preſent magnificent Structure.*

IN our Magazine for September, we gave a deſcription, with a perſpective view, of the preſent magnificent theatre, in Drury-lane: we now preſent the ground plan of the whole ſtructure, with an hiſtorical account of the origin of a theatre in that place.

Early in the laſt century there was a theatre in Drury-lane, which was ſometimes called The Phœnix, and ſometimes The Cockpit. Mr Malone ſays, 'This theatre had been originally a cockpit. It was built or rebuilt not very long before the year

1617, in which year, as we learn from 'Camden's Annals of King James the Firſt,' it was pulled down by the mob. I ſuppoſe it was ſometimes called The Phœnix from that fabulous bird being its ſign. It was ſituated oppoſite the Caſtle tavern, in Drury-lane, and was ſtanding ſome time after the reſtoration. The players who performed at this theatre in the time of king James the firſt, were called the queen's ſervants till the death of queen Anne, in 1619. After her death they were, I think, for ſome time denominated the lady Eliſabeth's ſervants; and after the marriage of king Charles the firſt, they regained their former title of the queen's players.' How ſoon the demoliſhed theatre was rebuilt, is uncertain; but the firſt play in print we can find, which is expreſſly ſaid to have been acted at Drury-lane, is 'The Wedding,' by James Shirley, printed in the year 1629, from which time until the ſilencing of the theatres in the time of the commonwealth, a regular ſeries of dramas acted there may be produced. On the revival of the ſtage, ſir William Davenant, in the year 1658, took poſſeſſion of it, and performed ſuch pieces as the times would admit, until the eve of the reſtoration. At that period, Mr. Rhodes, a bookſeller, who had formerly been wardrobe-keeper to the company at the Black-friars playhouſe, fitted up the Cockpit, and began to act plays there with ſuch performers (of which two, Betterton and Kynaſton, had been his apprentices) as he could procure. Soon afterward two patents being obtained by ſir William Davenant and Thomas Killegrew, Rhodes' company were taken under the protection of the former, and with him went to Lincoln's-inn-fields, and were ſtyled ſervants of the duke of York.

The company collected by Killegrew were called the king's ſervants, and acted firſt in a houſe near Clare-market. But this theatre being not well adapted for the uſe to which it was appropriated, a more convenient one was erected on the ſcite of the preſent theatre, which was opened the 8th of April 1662.

This theatre laſted but a ſhort time. In January 1671-2, it took fire, and was entirely demoliſhed. The violence of the conflagration was ſo great, that between fifty and ſixty adjoining houſes were burnt or blown up *. After the conſternation occaſioned by this accident had ſubſided, the proprietors reſolved to rebuild the theatre, with ſuch improvements as might be ſuggeſted, and for that purpoſe employed ſir Chriſtopher Wren, the moſt celebrated architect of his time, to draw the deſign and ſuperintend the execution of it. The plan which he produced, in the opinion of thoſe who were well able to judge of it, was ſuch a one as was alike calculated for the advantage of the performers and ſpectators; and the ſeveral alterations afterward made in it; ſo far from being improvements, contributed only to defeat the intention of the architect, and to ſpoil the building.

The new theatre being finiſhed, was opened on the 26th of March 1674. On this occaſion a prologue and epilogue were delivered, both written by Mr. Dryden, in which the plainneſs and want of ornament in the houſe, compared with that in Dorſet-gardens, were particularly mentioned. The encouragement given to the latter, on account of its ſcenery and de-

* See Reed's Preface, page 88. To ſome of our readers it will be matter of ſurpriſe that there ſhould have been a brief read through the kingdom for the benefit of the ſufferers. In the regiſter of Symondſbury, in the county of Dorſet, is the following entry: '1673, April 27, collected by brief for the Theatre Royal in London being burnt, the ſum of two ſhillings.'

JOHN WAY, Curate.
JAMES MOREY, } Churchwardens.
GEORGE SEAL, }

corations,

corations, was not forgotten; and as an apology for the deficiency of embellishment, the direction of his majesty is expressly asserted.

The population of London at this period, or the taste of the times, appears to have been insufficient to maintain two theatres. It was therefore agreed, a few years after, by the patentees, to unite the companies, and perform only at one theatre, Drury-lane. After various changes, both the patents came into the possession of Christopher Rich, who having misconducted himself in the management, was silenced by the chamberlain in 1709, from which time the Drury-lane company ceased to act under the authority of either of king Charles' patents. In the first year of George I, a license was granted to sir Richard Steele, for his life and three years afterward, to establish a company, which under the management of himself, Wilks, Booth, and Cibber, continued to act with great success at Drury-lane, until the deaths of the two former, and the secession of the latter, threw the property of the theatre, in the year 1733, into the hands of Mr. Highmore; who being ruined by the scheme, the theatre was purchased by Charles Fleetwood, whose management terminated equally unfortunately with that of his predecessor. In 1747, the successful management of messrs. Garrick and Lacy commenced, which continued until the year 1776, when the property passed to the present proprietors.

Short Remarks *on a* Leading Sentiment *in Dr.* Johnson's Rambler.

THE value of Dr. Samuel Johnson's works, in a moral view, has been so long acknowledged, that it is needless to expatiate on the subject. The papers of the Rambler and Idler will ever be admired by those readers, who prefer depth of thinking and solidity of remark. Yet it were to be wished he had been a more cheerful observer of human life, and had drawn less from the fund of a mind, often discontented, and almost always, as he confesses, oppressed with a morbid melancholy. It is to this we owe the many gloomy representations of human life, which may, indeed, be gratifying to a congenial mind, which may please in the hour of disappointment, and during the operation of chagrin, from whatever cause, but are certainly calculated to make a very improper impression on a youth just entering the world, with the pleasing hopes and expectations befitting his tender years.

That 'man was born to mourn and to be wretched,' is a sentiment which runs through the whole of this truly valuable work; but it is a sentiment which cannot be justified by general experience, and no man surely has a right to form a general rule from the case of an individual. If we could calculate the sum of human happiness, we should find it much greater than is commonly supposed, and more equally distributed. Nor do we ever think otherwise, unless when we allow our affections to dwell upon certain external circumstances which have been erroneously supposed to constitute happiness. Thus, if we suppose that riches confer happiness, it must be granted that the happy are the scanty few, and the miserable the million. But who ever deliberately considered riches as the source of happiness?

The following appears to me to be a comprehensive, though short, statement of the fact on this subject. Happiness is a relative term, and respects one situation as compared to another, for there is no situation which we cannot imagine might be made more happy. Happiness does not consist in the pleasures of sense, because they are of short duration, and cloy by repetition, and because they inter-

fere with enjoyments of a ſuperior nature, injure the health, and deſtroy thoſe comforts of life which would otherwiſe be laſting. Nor does it, as the poor imagine, conſiſt in a freedom from labour, toil, and induſtrious employments, becauſe the mind muſt be employed in ſomething, and a ſtate of idleneſs is ſo far from being a ſtate of happineſs, that it is abſolutely accompanied with pain both of mind and body. Men of buſineſs are often deſirous of retirement, but they rarely find themſelves happy in it; and many have, after a fair experiment, actually returned to the labours of the counting houſe and the ſhop, convinced that idleneſs is not connected with happineſs.

More abſurd yet is it to ſuppoſe that happineſs conſiſts in great eſs or elevated ſtation. The great are not to be envied; nor are they envied unleſs by thoſe who view them at a diſtance, and through the falſe medium of their own imagination. Ambition is not a pleaſurable ſtate of mind: the ambitious man pays dearly, by the anxiety of hope, and the terror of diſappointment, for whatever he may attain; and, when in actual poſſeſſion of the object, confeſſes, with a ſigh, how much and how falſely it was magnified by expectation. Beſides, the pleaſure of ambition may be gratified in ſtations comparatively low. The rivalſhip of the poor, their mutual wiſh for ſuperiority, and the proud merit of attaining it, differ in degree only, from the ſame paſſions in thoſe whom the world are pleaſed to call the *great*.

But, that man was *not* 'born to mourn and to be wretched,' will be very evident, if we conſider in what happineſs does really conſiſt. It conſiſts, then, briefly, in the exerciſe of the ſocial affections, whether toward friends and common acquaintances, or the more endearing relations of wife, and children. The exerciſe of theſe affections affords one great ſource of happineſs, always in our power, and ſubject only to thoſe viciſſitudes which conſtitute the ſyſtem of mortality. Happineſs conſiſts alſo in employing the faculties of body or mind in ſome uſeful or honourable purſuit. This becomes a ſource of hope; and there is no happineſs without ſomething to hope for. This includes, likewiſe, the chief of all human happineſs, the hope of an hereafter. It is this, indeed, which conſtitutes the chief end of man, and which, while he builds his hope upon the ſolid foundations of chriſtianity, will effectually prevent him from dragging out the miſerable exiſtence of thoſe 'who are born to mourn and to be wretched.'

The uninterrupted exerciſe of induſtry, be the ſituation of life what it may, when joined to the practice of virtue, cannot fail to inſure the greateſt portion of actual happineſs; becauſe thoſe misfortunes, which, by the conſtitution of the world, fall promiſcuouſly on all men, muſt, in the nature of things, fall very gently on him, who cannot accuſe himſelf of having provoked them; and it is very ſurpriſing, that this ſimple recipe for happineſs is not taken more often, when we conſider that much of what is expected from men, is rather of the negative than poſitive kind. It conſiſts rather in abſtaining from what is unlawful and pernicious, than in the auſtere practice of the oppoſite virtues. Thus, when a man is required to be generous, it does not follow that he ſhould be laviſh. When we expect him to be induſtrious, we do not demand that he ſhould injure his health by exceſs of fatigue; and when we enjoin temperance, and abſtinence from luxury and intoxication, it is not neceſſary that he ſhould ſubmit to the mortification of faſting, or to the life of a hermit.

In the eyes of a rational being, the ſacrifices to happineſs will appear to be very ſmall; neither the laws of religion, nor the cuſtoms of men, requiring a total abſtinence from pleaſure, or relaxation. The rigidity of religious obligation is a theme only with

with thoſe who are unacquainted with the mild ſpirit of its laws, the great allowances it makes for human frailty, and the ample encouragement it holds out to the diffident. To repreſent human life, therefore, as a ſcene of mourning and wretchedneſs, is untrue and unjuſt: ſuch an opinion arms men againſt each other, and has a tendency to produce the evils it deplores. Every fair and extenſive conſideration of what paſſes in the world will ſerve to convince an impartial mind of two facts of the utmoſt importance, which cannot be too often repeated, and to which we cannot too often refer in all times of proſperity or adverſity; namely, 'that happineſs is pretty equally diſtributed among the different orders of civil ſociety;' and, that 'vice has no advantage over virtue, even with reſpect to this world's happineſs.' All that is diſgraceful or painful in puniſhment or adverſity is the lot of the wicked only. Of them only can it be juſtly ſaid that, 'they are born to mourn and to be wretched.'

C. A.

LIFE OF GEORGE LESLEY.

Concluded from Page 263.

IN the uppermoſt ſtory of the caſtle there was a very fine hall, to which the family often reſorted, for the ſake of the beauty of the proſpect. The lady turned this hall into a chapel. The richeſt and moſt ſumptuous furniture of the houſe, was employed in decking out an altar. The ladies vied with each other in beſtowing on it their magnificent gowns, their jewels, their pearls, their chains, and their works of embroidery. Gold and ſilver were employed for making the ſacred veſſels. The mother crowned this work, by giving all the rings that ſhe wore on her fingers to her ſon. Archangel had them made into a fair chalice and *paten* of maſſy gold. In a word, the divine offices were celebrated at the caſtle of Monymuſk, with the utmoſt ſolemnity and ſplendour.

As the Roman republic, having once maſtered Italy, made a rapid progreſs in ſubduing many kingdoms: ſo Archangel, having wrought the converſion of his mother and his family, met no farther obſtacle in enriching paradiſe with his conqueſts. He was wont to ſay, that, during the time of this firſt miſſion, which continued for more than two years, he made a greater number of converts, while dreſſed in his ſecular than in his religious habit. So true is it, that a prophane garb brings no ſtain on the purity of the maxims of the faith.—A ſevere edict was publiſhed at Aberdeen, commanding, in the king's name, all Roman catholic prieſts to quit Scotland, within a certain time, under pain of death, and confiſcation of goods. The *prince of darkneſs* aimed that thunderbolt againſt the edifices, which truth had already erected. Such were the cruel reſolutions taken by government. The new converts looked on this edict as a ſentence of death: however, they ſometimes flattered themſelves that it would not be carried into execution. But Archangel had no ſuch hopes. He knew this to be a ſtate buſineſs; and as it was in matters of religion, he feared that every paſſage to clemency and mild meaſures would be ſhut up. All oppoſed the madneſs and cruelty of perſecutors to the generous reſolutions of the Roman catholics. Archangel knew well, that, in the garden of the church, young plants newly watered muſt needs ſuffer the violence of tempeſts; yet he comforted himſelf with this reflection, that no malign influences of ſublunary meteors can hurt them.

The mother of Archangel, ſhewed much fortitude on the near view of a ſepara-

ſeparation from her beloved ſon. Is it not incredible, ſays the archbiſhop of Fermo, that the weaker ſex ſhould prepare itſelf to endure cruel perſecutions, with courage more than maſculine? But *is it not true*, that the eleven thouſand virgins have left a memorable example of the conſtancy of their ſex? They were deſigned to people Brittany; and embarking at ſome ports not far diſtant from Scotland, they had for ſails their innocence and purity; and having reſiſted the violence of the Huns, they exchanged the place of their deſtination, and went to people the celeſtial abodes of paradiſe. The waves of the empurpled Rhine, and the Britiſh ſea, tinged with their blood, gave teſtimony to the invincible fortitude of thoſe eleven thouſand virgins!

Archangel retired into England, and, together with his brethren of the miſſion, laboured night and day in ruining the empire of the prince of darkneſs. He was frequently in imminent danger of being apprehended. One time particularly, as he travelled with a ſingle ſervant through a by-road, he met a heretic biſhop going on his viſitation with a numerous retinue: 'Alas! poor truth,' ſaid Archangel to himſelf, 'how art thou deſpiſed and abandoned on the earth, where errors and cozenage are in ſuch high eſtimation! *That* man carries poiſon, and thirſty ſouls go to drink it; while *I*, a miniſter of ſalvation, muſt go to ſeek hearers among deſerts, and in caverns.'—The chaplain of Monymuſk happened to be in the biſhop's company; he informed againſt Archangel: the biſhop ſent twenty-five horſemen to ſeize him; but he eſcaped: his ſervant, however, was taken, together with his portmanteau, containing his writings, ſome books againſt heretical vanities, and a fine chalice. The biſhop cauſed the writings and books to be publicly burnt; and he profaned the chalice, by putting it round as a drinking cup at a great feaſt which he gave.

After the departure of Archangel from Scotland, the heretics, obſerving that his mother had ceaſed from her attendance at their temples, excommunicated her for contumacy. This ſentence having been laid before the civil judge, he condemned her to be deprived of her whole fortune. His judgment was moſt rigorouſly executed; and, in a few days, the mother of Archangel was ſtript of her revenues and heritages, and of all her moveable goods. She retired into a ſmall dwelling, where ſhe ſubſiſted on the little that ſhe could earn by ſpinning. Archangel reſolved to viſit his mother: but the enterpriſe was hazardous; for the guards had been doubled, and the *inquiſitors of the faith* carefully examined in every part of the kingdom.

He put on the diſguiſe of a peaſant. As he drew near Monymuſk, he gathered ſome herbs; and, pretending to be a gardener, he went forward to cry them about the ſtreets, after the manner of the country. The guards ſtopt him at the gate; and one of the ſoldiers, in a drunken fit, ſaid, 'This fellow has much the air of being a papiſt.' Archangel, however, gained admittance into the town; and he began to cry through the ſtreets, 'Buy my greens.' Not knowing where his mother reſided, and afraid to aſk any queſtions, he paſſed throughout Monymuſk three times. Having ſold almoſt all his greens, he knew not what pretence to uſe next for diſcovering her. Juſt at that moment, ſhe came out of a miſerable hovel, and cried, 'Here, gardener.' Archangel was deeply affected at ſeeing his mother dreſſed like a ſervant-maid, and reduced to the neceſſity of purchaſing greens for herſelf. He approached the door, trembling, and examining all around, leſt he ſhould be obſerved. While his mother was cheapening the greens, he looked her full in the face, and ſaid, 'Madam, this gardener does not *ſell* but *give* to his *mother*.' The mother uttered a cry, which was heard in the ſtreet; but recollecting the danger, ſhe made

a ſign

a ſign for him to go into a lane, where there was a low houſe, and a private entry. Short was the interview between Archangel and his mother; the king's commiſſaries in matters of religion broke into the houſe. The mother had only time to ſay, 'Be of good heart—we are dead.' The commiſſaries ſaid, that they were looking for Roman catholic prieſts; and they aſked Archangel, what buſineſs he had there? Archangel ſaid, that he was ſelling greens.—'You ought to ſell greens in the ſtreets, and not in a houſe. Do you not know that this woman is a papiſt? Perhaps you yourſelf are a ſpy.' Then they ordered him to depart immediately. Archangel could only take a ſilent and ſtolen farewell of his mother, and he returned into England.

Archangel, on his return to England, had letters from the general of the Capuchins, informing him, that he was accuſed of having tranſgreſſed the rules of his miſſion, and adviſing him to repair to Italy, in order to juſtify himſelf. The children of the preſent world will not eaſily believe the exceſs of Archangel's joy on hearing this news. 'Now,' ſaid he, 'I begin to merit;' and he prayed inceſſantly, that ſome obſtacle might be thrown in the way of his juſtification. Here the archbiſhop of Fermo burſts out into a paſſionate apoſtrophe, which concludes thus: 'Oh! I underſtand perfectly this celeſtial philoſophy; and becauſe I ingenuouſly confeſs that I do not underſtand it, it is ſaid that I do underſtand it; for I ſee his prayers heard.' At that time the plague deſolated Italy; and the roads through its different provinces were ſtrictly guarded, to prevent the ſpreading of the contagion. Archangel met with frequent embaraſſments and interruptions in his journey. This rejoiced him very much, as it withheld from him the means of vindicating himſelf at Rome. He thought that his prayers were heard; and in order to profit by this, he made a vow, ſubject always to the good pleaſure of his ſuperiors, that he would attend on thoſe who were viſited with the plague. The general of the Capuchins ratified this vow, and appointed their convent at Cremona for his place of reſidence. Together with his ratification, Archangel received an inſtrument from pope Urban VIII, bearing, that he was fully acquitted of the charge brought againſt him; and that permiſſion was granted for his being ſent back to Scotland.

Archangel continued his attendance on the ſick at Cremona, until the plague ceaſed. His ſuperiors judged it proper that he ſhould remain in Italy. He was made guardian of the convent of Mount George, in the dioceſe of Fermo. At that time, M. Rinuccini was archbiſhop of Fermo: he had been appointed to that charge five years before, by pope Urban VIII. The archbiſhop having become acquainted with Archangel, employed him in preaching, and in performing other eccleſiaſtical offices. One day the archbiſhop found Archangel on his knees, before the image of the virgin, in the chapel of our lady of Leté. His face and his eyes ſhone with a light more than human; and he ſaid to the archbiſhop; 'I knew well, my lord, that this *Queen of the Sea* had reſerved me for ſome new voyage. The pope has eſtabliſhed a miſſion for Great Britain, and has appointed me to it, together with father Epiphanes, a Scotſman.' The archbiſhop then communicated a ſecret to Archangel, that he himſelf had been inſpired by the *Queen of Heaven* to be of the number of thoſe who ſhould preach the goſpel in Britain, if any probability of its converſion appeared; and at the ſame time he entreated him to keep ſecret this inſpiration.

Archangel ſet out on his miſſion; and juſt before he ſailed with a favourable wind from Leghorn, he wrote a letter to the archbiſhop, which contained, among other things, theſe words; 'I ſee well that I owe this happy beginning of my journey to the

the Queen of the Adriatic.' The wind was so fair, that he reached Marseilles in a few hours. He went to Paris, preached at the Louvre before the king, the queen-regent, and the whole court; then proceeded to Calais; and, in company with father Epiphanes, embarked on board an English vessel, commanded by a Roman catholic. They had hardly got out of port, when a furious tempest arose. In order to lighten the ship, it was proposed to throw some of the least useful hands overboard. This proposal, however, was far from receiving universal approbation so in this exigency, and to prevent any murmur or ill will, they agreed to cast lots. Here there occurred another question, whether the two Capuchins should be exempted from casting lots. Some said, that they ought not; because those fathers, meaning to sacrifice their lives for the safety of men, might as well do it at present as hereafter; and since *they* were the best prepared to suffer, it would not be right to exempt them. But others, more judicious, considered how Scotland, the place of their destination, might suffer, and how much they would have to answer for, were they to make away with two persons of merit so extraordinary. Archangel declared, that he and his companion would not submit to any exemption. So all of them began to draw lots. Father Epiphanes drew first, and had a favourable chance. Meanwhile, the tempest increased so violently, that the plan of lightening the ship was laid aside as useless. The ship was driven upon a rock near the isle of Wight. While Archangel and his companion were confessing some of the crew, and exhorting others, that part of the ship in which they were, separated from the other, and came on shore. Some passengers were saved, but most of the crew perished.

It was a lonely place on which they were thrown. After they had travelled a little way into the country, they met a shepherd, who told them that they would find relief in a neighbouring village, to which the king of England, and the principal lords of his court, were wont to come for the sake of hunting. Archangel proposed to go before the others, and took with him two of the passengers, English gentlemen, obstinately attached to their *false religion*. As he walked along, he converted them both. The only argument used by him which the archbishop has thought necessary to record, was this: '*We* hold that *you* cannot be saved, *you* admit that *we* may; judge then which is the safest religion.' In consequence of their conversion, Archangel released them from the sentence of excommunication; but he delayed to confess them, until they should all arrive at the neighbouring borough of St. Calpin. The joy of Archangel on being saved from shipwreck was not so great as that which he felt on having carried off two such noble spoils from the devil. When they arrived at St. Calpin, Archangel, lest his family should be known, laid aside the name of Leslie, and assumed that of Wooder (*Silviano*) because the name of his mother was Wood (*Silva*).

Archangel happening to meet a young Scottish gentleman at the inn, asked him, whether there were many Roman catholics in Scotland *since the great persecution*. 'Formerly,' said the young gentleman,' there were very many, and even of the first families; but the king, by his severe edicts, has expelled them all, and confiscated their estates; and at present there remains but one family of them, and it is established in the large town of Monymusk. To it the king, by an instance of bounty altogether singular, has lately restored its estates, which had been forfeited, together with those of others of the like persuasion; and from gratitude for the services done to him by that family, he tolerates it alone in the exercise of the Roman catholic religion.'

This young gentleman proved to be Edward, the youngest brother of

Archangel; and from him Archangel learnt, that the court of France had interposed its good offices in favour of the family of Monymusk, (this was in consequence of the private solicitations of Archangel himself); and that Charles I. had restored it to the possession of its estates; but that the moveables, having been all sold by public auction, were never recovered.

From Edward, Archangel got the sad accounts of his mother's death. The circumstances of that event were somewhat singular. She had heard that Archangel was about to return to Scotland on a second mission, and she grew impatient to learn some accounts of him. She walked every day on the road leading from England to Monymusk and Aberdeen; and having met with some merchants on their return from the fair of London, she asked very civilly, 'what news there was at the fair?' They answered, none, excepting that there had been lately a great tempest in the German sea, which separates France from England, on the side where the Thames is: that many ships had perished; and particularly one in which there were some priests. The old lady immediately concluded that her son Archangel was drowned; a slow fever seized her, and she died nine days after.

It seems that Edward had come to the Isle of Wight in order to solicit for the continuance of the king's favours, and for leave to have a priest at Aberdeen, who might comfort the whole family. We may well imagine, that Archangel was now intended to be *that* priest, should the king grant the petition. Archangel and his companions went to Newport to pay their respects to the king. As he chanced to be hunting, they amused themselves, until his return from the chace, in examining the fortifications of Newport. Edward happened to say, that it was practicable to undermine the great tower, and that that side of the town could not long resist cannon. These words having been overheard by the centinels, Edward and the two capuchins were seized as spies, and conducted to the castle. The governor loaded them with irons, and threw them into a dungeon. They were conducted to the king on his return. The king remembered that he had seen Archangel in the *suite* of the Spanish ambassador, and said to him and his brother, 'I have long known the fidelity of your family, and the service they have done to the state. I shall consider your interest as my own. Continue in possession of all the immunities that I formerly granted; and, while you remain here, I forbid you to have any abode but this castle, which you may use as freely as if it were your mother's house.'

While Archangel resided in the castle, he was scandalized at seeing the courtiers kneel before the king. 'That,' said he to his brother, 'was an honour formerly paid to the Divinity in his hallowed temples. We need not wonder at the curse which has fallen on the inhabitants of this miserable kingdom. It is the just punishment of their perverting that reverence which they owe to the Divinity and to the pope.' Edward, who was a very judicious person, observed that the sentiments of Archangel had no less truth than zeal; for indeed the kings of England, when they falsely assumed to themselves the quality of *Head of the English Church*, also exacted the respect due to that character: and since they deprived the church of her visible and true head, it was fit that they should, at the same time, be deprived of his influences.

Archangel and his brother, and father Epiphanes, left the court, and went to Aberdeen. Epiphanes departed into the uttermost parts of Scotland, where the people are rather rude and ignorant, than heretical. Archangel carried on the business of his mission with great ardour and success: in this he was aided by his two brothers, who, under his tuition, had acquired such skill in con-

troverſy, that they could diſpute with the miniſters. The king, having heard of the ſucceſsful labours of Archangel, flew into a paſſion, ordered him and his brothers to be ſent for to court; and commanded, that the edicts which forbade the preaching of the catholic faith, ſhould immediately be revived throughout all his dominions. The edicts were accordingly proclaimed, not only in all the public places of London, but in all the towns of Great Britain and Ireland. Archangel loſt no time in obeying the king's commands. He ſet out for England. By the road he occupied himſelf in preaching, and in viſiting the nobility of his perſuaſion.

We muſt not omit mention of a conference which he had with a conſiderable number of gentlemen in the neighbourhood of the city of Torphichen (Forſecan). On that occaſion, his diſcourſes were ſo charming, and ſo full of fine and learned arguments, that he converted the eldeſt ſon of the baron Clugin, an Engliſhman of quality. This youth generouſly abandoned his father's houſe, went to Rome, and embraced the Roman catholic religion; and had he not been cut off by a premature death, it is probable that he would, in all particulars, have imitated the example of Archangel. While Archangel was on the frontiers of England, he fell ill of a fever, occaſioned by his exceſſive fatigues. A jeſuit, who chanced to be in the neighbourhood, performed the laſt offices to him, and cloſed his eyes. There was a mountain not far diſtant, which hardly any man durſt approach, by reaſon of a conſtant noiſe of a pack of hounds in full cry, accompanied by the hallooing of men, and the ſound of horſes galloping; yet the confidence which the faithful had in the merits of Archangel, inſpired them with reſolution enough to carry the body up to that mountain. There they depoſited it.

The archbiſhop of Fermo concludes his treatiſe with ſome arguments to prove that Archangel ought to be held as a ſaint. In particular, he obſerves, that if there be ſaints whom the voice of the people alone, commonly called the voice of heaven, has beatified, no one better deſerves that honour than George Leſley of Monymuſk.

ON WITCHCRAFT.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

IN your Magazine for September, I read a letter, ſigned *Miſaugur*, in which the author exerciſes the ſeverity of his pen againſt, what he is pleaſed to call, popular ſuperſtitions, derived from our anceſtors. As every man has a right to hold his own opinion, and even to propagate it, if he does that with decency and candour, I cannot refuſe him a liberty which I am myſelf about to take. But ſir, as he has, though only in an indirect way, attacked the belief in *witchcraft*, I think it my duty to ſtep forward, and vindicate an opinion that has formerly been maintained by many very able and wiſe men.

Thoſe, ſir, who are ſo ſubmiſſive in their way of thinking as to believe and diſbelieve only by act of parliament, will naturally think that they were exonerated from a belief in witchcraft by an act paſſed about forty or fifty years ago, and which they conſider as a complete refutation of every thing that can be advanced in favour of witchcraft. But if any perſon will give himſelf the trouble to look into that act, they will find it amounts to no more than a *complete toleration* of witchcraft, and enacts, as the learned Blackſtone ſays 'that no proſecution ſhall for the future be carried on againſt any perſon for conjuration,

juration, witchcraft, ſorcery, or inchantment.' Here it is plain, that the fact of the exiſtence of witchcraft is admitted. Nay, ſo far is this act from contradicting that, that it affords a ſpecial protection to witches, by ordaining punihment only for thoſe who "*pretend* to uſe witchcraft, tell fortunes, or diſcover ſtolen goods by ſkill in the occult ſciences.'

This act, then, was, very plainly, an act of *toleration*, and preciſely the ſame thing which Roman catholics and diſſenters have ſo often contended for. So far was it from *abolihing* witchcraft, as ſome people foolihly aſſert, that every perſon converſant with the world, and particularly the faſhionable part of it, muſt be ſenſible how amazingly all kinds of real witchcraft and ſorceries have abounded ſince the ninth year of George II, when the act was paſſed. Nay the exiſtence of witchcraft is not only eaſily proved, and is perfectly natural, but is abſolutely neceſſary in order to enable reaſoning men to account for many appearances. In fact, two thirds of the actions of mankind would be miracles and myſteries, if we did not believe in the operations of witchcraft; and ſo fully are we perſuaded of this, that to ſay a man is *bewitched* when we obſerve him doing any uncommonly fooliſh action, is what every body ſays, and muſt ſay. We often ſee a man bleſt with health, riches, a beautiful and affectionate wife, and a fine family, conſuming his days and nights with ſharpers, harlots, and horſe-jockies, what is this but *witchcraft?* Let any man account for it upon other principles, and I have done: my argument ſhall be given up.

Nor are the witches, whoſe enchantments are principally felt in theſe days, in any reſpect different from thoſe of former ages, when they were perſecuted, and drowned or burnt. Their attributes are the ſame. Their principal characteriſtic or privilege, is their being able to aſſume ſo many different ſhapes. This, however wonderful, is very neceſſary for them, as they could not elſe accommodate themſelves to the variety of perſons, places, and things they have to work upon. Sometimes we ſee a witch in the ſhape of a beautiful female, young and attractive; ſometimes in the ſhape of a male human figure ugly in the face, and with *black legs*. Sometimes our witches take the form of very fleet and beautiful *horſes*; ſometimes they appear like *dogs* of various kinds; and it it very often that they appear in the form of inanimate things. Many have been inchanted by a parcel of ſtiff pieces of paper marked with black and red ſpots. Some have been bewitched to their deſtruction by demons who had the power of transforming themſelves into bottles of wine, and I once loſt a ſervant in conſequence of his being driven mad by a ſorcery in the ſhape, ſtrange as it may ſeem, of a reſpectable looking public houſe.

No age is exempted from the influences of witchcraft, and it is the great art of theſe inviſible beings to aſſume what ſhape ſhall beſt pleaſe the age of the party to be deceived. Old men are generally acted upon by witches in the ſhape of round pieces of gold, ſtamped in a peculiar manner, and which they obtain a certain power over ſo as to enable them to multiply their ſpecies in various ways, or, if they pleaſe, to convert them into paper, which, ſuch is the force of enchantment, they prize above every conſideration of moral rectitude, of honour, or generoſity. Such are the wonderful powers of witchcraft in an age when people, who either do not or cannot obſerve what paſſes around them, take upon them to maintain that an act of parliament baniſhed every thing of the kind. Much as I am inclined to allow to the force of an act of parliament, I cannot be of opinion that it is always effectual in promoting its good intentions, nor are men ſo very willing to be bound by them,

as to relinquish their favourite purſuits.

One thing I am willing to allow, as ſome excuſe for thoſe who deny the exiſtence of witchcraft, and that is, its having changed its name. Many things are called by different names at different times; what, for inſtance, was formerly called *murder*, and I believe is ſtill ſo called in law-books, has more generally received the name of *dueling*. *Cheating* has aſſumed the mild name of *taking a fair advantage*; and what our forefathers, and the bible and prayer-book call *adultery*, is now known only by the name of an *affair of gallantry*. It cannot be a matter of ſurpriſe if witchcraft ſhould follow the ſame analogy. A man who deſerts an amiable wife for a polluted, infamous, and common ſtrumpet, would formerly have been ſaid to be *bewitched*, or infatuated, but now we pronounce him a man 'rather of gay manners, but very good heart.' Another, who in a very few years conſumes a princely fortune upon purſuits which he cannot remember without ſhame, and upon company who deſert him as ſoon as he becomes no longer ſubſervient to their avaricious purpoſes, was, in former days, ſuppoſed to act under the force of irreſiſtible enchantment, which, as no reaſonable agent was *viſible*, it was but juſt to attribute to lunacy. Such a man now is only 'a wild young dog, and nobody's enemy but his own.' In this manner I might go on to ſhow, that the various degrees of witchcraft have been changed in name only; but theſe examples will ſuffice.

It is to be obſerved that we have certainly loſt all the ancient modes of averting the operations of witchcraft. Laying two ſtraws acroſs on the road the witch is ſuppoſed to paſs will not anſwer the purpoſe now, nor is it to be expected that *they* can, on a ſudden emergeney, repeat the Lord's prayer backward, who never knew how to repeat it forward. Indeed, I never obſerved an inclination to praying in the few bewitched perſons who have come under my eye, although I have often remarked an uncommon propenſity to ſwearing, which, however natural and eaſy, I do not conceive to be proper either as a preventive or a cure.

As one act of parliament gave a toleration to the witches which your correſpondent *Miſaugur* ſeems to think do no longer exiſt, I humbly conceive, that if the parliament were to inſtitute an enquiry into the preſent ſtate of witchcraft in theſe kingdoms, ſome ſalutary laws might be enacted againſt the more groſs and barefaced ſpecies of inchanters who appear in viſible ſhapes, and might, I apprehend, be eaſily ſubjected to the ſame laws which *we* obey. But as ſome people may be averſe to any propoſition which tends to increaſe the number of our penal ſtatutes, perhaps good might be done by giving a more active efficacy to the exiſting laws, in many of whom there are ſundry very ſalutary clauſes againſt the witchcrafts noticed in this letter. If we cannot completely eradicate an evil, let us do what we can. We are not all capable of undertaking the labours of Hercules, but there are labours which the weakeſt of us may perform: and there is great merit in doing a little *well*.

But I muſt not intrude farther upon your patience. I have briefly endeavoured to prove that the exiſtence of witchcraft would never have been denied, if it had not, in common with other things, changed its name, and if we did not now ſubmit to that as *faſhion* which formerly would have been accounted *ſupernatural agency*.

I am, ſir, yours,

GLANVIL.

On

On a PREVALENT SPECIES *of* CRUELTY.

Nihil quod crudele, utile. Eſt enim hominum naturæ, quam ſequi debemus, maxime inimica crudelitas. Cicero de Off. Lib. iii.

CERES is ſaid to have firſt taught the Athenians to lead a ſocial life, and it is commonly believed that ſhe gave them laws by her favourite Triptolemus. The whole body of her laws were compriſed in one line: 'Honour your parents; worſhip the gods; hurt not animals.' Draco, the celebrated legiſlator of the Athenians, retained theſe precepts, and made them the foundation of his inſtitutions. It may be eaſily conceived that they would have a great tendency to ſoften the ferocious nature of a barbarous people, and to attune their minds to thoſe pleaſures which reſult from performing the duties of ſocial life. In the laws of modern nations, morality is provided for only negatively: certain crimes are forbidden, but no duties are enjoined; the moderns wiſely conſidering, that by this means the oppoſite of every vice would be declared a virtue.

Of theſe precepts of the Athenians, that which enters into no part of our laws, but which nevertheleſs is highly deſerving of attention, is the laſt: '*Hurt not animals.*'

All ſenſible and virtuous parents will naturally point out to their children the wickedneſs of tormenting animals, or of killing them wantonly; yet whatever pains ſuch parents may take, it is impoſſible not to conſider cruelty to animals as one of thoſe vices which pervade the nation in no common degree. We cannot walk the ſtreets of the metropolis without meeting with frequent and ſhocking inſtances of it, and what may ſeem to aggravate the crime is, that the moſt uſeful animals are ſelected as the objects of the greateſt cruelty.

With reſpect to children, it is rather a ſingular, but a very notorious fact, that they are, in general, diſpoſed toward cruelty to animals; and this diſpoſition will acquire an uncommon degree of obſtinacy and ſtrength, if not checked by the prudent watchfulneſs of the parent. Without entering into the queſtion about *innate* ideas, or the original corruption of human nature, we happily find it not difficult to perſuade a ſenſible child that it is cruel and unlawful to hurt dumb animals. They ſeem to err from ignorance only, (for children are not devoid of ſympathy or affection) and never conceive that an animal ſo ſmall as a fly or moth can feel pain, becauſe they do not hear its moans, nor witneſs its agonies. But once repreſent to them, that the ſmalleſt animals are endued with feeling as acutely as the largeſt, and they will be ſtruck with the cruelty of what they have done. Teach them to repeat, from Shakſpeare, that

——The poor beetle, that we tread upon,
In corporal ſufferance feels a pang as great
As when a giant dies——

and they will be aſhamed of having injured any thing ſo helpleſs and innocent. Continue to repeat the advice as the child grows more capable of comprehending the great duty of univerſal benevolence and humanity, and the impreſſion will be too deep to be eradicated afterward. There are few children, I apprehend, who might not be cured by this eaſy proceſs.

Yet ſtill it muſt be confeſſed, that there is in young people a certain hardneſs of heart (I do not mean in the worſt ſenſe) which inclines them to take pleaſure in witneſſing ſcenes of cruelty. A man of the greateſt humanity has often aſſured me, that when he was a boy of fourteen or fifteen years of age, he took great delight in going into ſlaughtering-houſes to ſee the various animals killed, but that, in a very few years, with-

without knowing why, or perceiving any change in his diſpoſition otherwiſe, he began to reflect with the utmoſt abhorrence on that part of his conduct, and no bribe could ever after induce him to witneſs any thing of the kind. The ſame experience, I have been aſſured of, from other perſons.'

It may be objected here, that I have termed the killing of animals for man's food an act of cruelty. It is not meant, however, to *impute* that act of cruelty to him who kills the animal, becauſe it is an act of neceſſity; nature having granted us thoſe animals for our ſubſiſtence, and the butcher is no more to be blamed than the judge who paſſes, or the hangman who executes, the ſentence of the law. Yet, with regard to the animal itſelf, we muſt account it an act of cruelty, becauſe it occaſions pain and temporary diſtreſs; temporary, becauſe they are interrupted in no career of intellectual pleaſure.

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to day;
Had he thy reaſon, would he ſkip and play?
POPE.

Yet however neceſſary it may be to kill theſe animals for the ſuſtenance of man, this very operation too often affords an argument in favour of my aſſertion, 'that cruelty to animals pervades this nation in no common degree.' Sufficient means are not uſed to render the death of the animal as quick as it might be; and the various cruelties inflicted upon oxen, ſheep, &c. in conducting them to market, are not only a reproach to the immediate perpetrators, but to thoſe who are authorized to make examples of them for the public good. But the conduct of butchers, or their young and thoughtleſs ſervants, is humanity itſelf when compared with that of other purveyors of luxury. I need only mention the manner of preparing eels, lobſters, and ſome other ſpecies of fiſh. The firſt is an inſtance of barbarity, which, if it did obtain one moment's conſideration, could not bear that ſhort reflection. I know not whether I ſhall incur the imputation of ſeverity and faſtidious delicacy, but I cannot ſuppreſs the opinion that it would be truly honorable in men of ſenſe and feeling to renounce ſuch luxuries for ever, if they could be procured by no other means than the moſt dreadful and lingering torments of a poor, helpleſs animal. I may excuſe the man who will receive this opinion with ſilent contempt, but I do not envy *his* heart who will recieve it with a ſmile.

To proſecute the various ſtages of cruelty is not a very gracious taſk, and I might incur very general cenſure were I to inſtance *hunting* as a cruelty of great enormity. Yet how to reconcile it with any principles of humanity, I am utterly at a loſs. Here is no plea of neceſſity, as might have exiſted in former days. We have no wild beaſts infeſting our foreſts, deſtroying the provender of the induſtrious peaſant, or preying upon the heedleſs paſſenger. The *amuſement* conſiſts in purſuing, for many hours, an animal kept for the purpoſe, enjoying its various agonies and fears, and permitting, at length, the dogs to devour it, or, which is not more merciful, reſerving it for future ſport. Such are the 'joys of the chaſe' ſo often and ſo poetically celebrated! If they are conſiſtent with humanity, if a really humane mind can, without the leaſt uneaſy reflection, accommodate itſelf to them, and partake of them with pleaſure, I can only ſay that there are ſome phænomena in the human mind which it is not eaſy to explain, and for myſelf, ſome contradictions which I ſhall never be able to reconcile.

'There is great difference,' ſays Dr. Hawkeſworth, 'between killing for food, and for ſport. To take pleaſure in that by which pain is inflicted, if it is not vicious, is dangerous; and every practice which, if not criminal in itſelf, yet wears out the ſympathizing ſenſibility of a tender mind, muſt render human nature proportionably leſs fit for ſociety.'—Here, indeed, is the great

great miſchief attached to the practice of what ſome may think harmleſs. Cruelty, however, is one principle. We cannot ſubdivide it into parts, and make a diſtinction between cruelty to man and cruelty to beaſts. It is the ſame principle in all caſes, differing only in its object, which is merely accidental. It is impoſſible to ſuppoſe that a man who delights to torment, and by lingering deaths to kill, dumb animals, would have much ſcruple to ſhed human blood, were his paſſions exaſperated, and the fear of the law removed. Hogarth has admirably illuſtrated the progreſs of cruelty in four prints ſo called. The young man who began with tormenting kittens, and other ſmall animals, ended in the murder of an unhappy woman with child by him. The leſſon, I allow, is intended for the lower claſſes of ſociety; but let not thoſe of better rank imagine that they can claim an exemption from the frailty of human nature. Let them not ſuppoſe that wanton cruelty, unchecked by reflection, may not, in time, lead them to enormities at which they now would ſhudder.

If, in any part of this ſhort paper, it ſhould appear that I have advanced opinions which are ſingular and too ſevere; their ſingularity will, I hope, excite the curioſity to examine into their truth; and, for their ſeverity, I have no better apology at hand, than a deſire to vindicate a nation of acknowledged humanity from thoſe inconſiſtencies of character which render that humanity more ſpecious than ſolid. We have, with great juſtice, been exclaiming againſt the barbarities of a neighbouring unhappy people. To avoid ſharing, in any degree, in their crimes, let us revive the genuine ſpirit of that religion to which every ſpecies of cruelty is adverſe.

CLEMENS.

REFLECTIONS *on the probable* EXPECTATIONS *of a* PEACE.

The following Reflections have juſt appeared in a Morning Paper, and are ſuppoſed to be written by a Perſon of high Rank, and of unqueſtionable Knowledge of the Subject. They are certainly written with a Moderation and Good Senſe, which, in theſe Times, is not too conſpicuous in Party Writers; and as the Subject is placed in a Variety of Views, we have no Doubt that it will be deemed an intereſting Article.

AT a time when general converſation, and the ſpeculations of individuals turn on the reports of an approaching peace, it is our duty to inveſtigate the grounds on which they reſt, and to reconcile the contradictory opinions that prevail on this momentous ſubject. The following obſervations may poſſibly throw ſome light on the true ſtate of affairs.

The appearances of peace are founded: 1ſt, on a general diſinclination to continue the war; 2dly, on the belligerent powers, which are exhauſted both of men and money; 3dly, on the demonſtrated impoſſibility of reducing the French by force of arms; 4thly, on the pacific meaſures adopted by the diet of Ratiſbon, for the opening of a negociation, under the mediation of the neutral northern powers; 5thly, on the favourable opportunity to treat, which the overthrow of the jacobins offered—and on the aſcendency of the moderate party, and the principles of a more tolerant and leſs offenſive policy, which appears to gain ground in the national convention and public opinion of France, and which muſt lead to the reeſtabliſhment of a regular government on a monarchical baſis, more or leſs limited. Theſe conſiderations muſt be ſtrengthened by ſome facts.

It is certain, that in proportion as the jacobins loſe their influence, and the indefinite liberty of the preſs is eſtabliſhed, we perceive extravagant ideas, and intolerant ſyſtems diſappear, and moderate principles prevail.

We read in a Parifian newſpaper: 'We will not make propoſitions of peace to the combined powers; they muſt aſk it. However, we will not imitate the haughty Romans. Victory gives us the right of demanding every thing; but we will require no more than is juſt.' The convention ought ſolemnly to declare, that as the French make war only to prevent attacks being made on the government, they have choſen, they will equally reſpect the ſame right in regard to other nations; they will not interfere with their interior adminiſtration; they will acknowledge every government that poſſeſſes the formal or tacit approbation of the people; becauſe we muſt not *yet* impoſe liberty as a yoke on thoſe who do not wiſh for it.' This is undoubtedly a language far more conciliatory and pacific, than that which was reſounded a twelvemonth ago in the convention; and which was propagated by all the newſpapers of that period.

In the conventional ſitting of October 14, Bourdon de l'Oiſe, loudly declaimed againſt the project of abandoning the conqueſts made by the republic, and of retaining only the French territory, ſuch as it was before the commencement of the war. He wiſhed the convention to decide on this political principle; but his motion was not ſupported; and was ſoon after rejected by the order of the day. It may be obſerved, that the conduct of the convention in this reſpect, is ſomewhat connected with the propoſition made on the 22d of the ſame month at the diet of Ratiſbon, by the repreſentative of the elector of Mayence, to open a negociation with France, on the baſis of the treaty of Weſtphalia; which ſecures the territory of the Germanic body in all its integral parts; according to this treaty, therefore, the French muſt abandon all their conqueſts.

What paſſed in the ſitting of the convention on the 17th, throws ſtill greater light on the diſpoſitions toward an accommodation. — Duhem demanded a law for the irrevocable union of Belgium with the French republic; that it might be comprehended in the centre of the unity and indiviſibility of the French government, as well as the other conquered countries. Another member, in ſupporting Duhem, obſerved, that the Belgians were placed between hope and fear; that it would be expedient for the convention to declare itſelf with reſpect to them; to pronounce definitively whether they ſhould be friends or enemies; in order that by finally attaching them to the republic, the latter might be enabled to profit by the immenſe reſources of Belgium, which, in its preſent ſtate, the people offered with extreme reſerve, and with a certain degree of reluctance, for fear of being puniſhed hereafter, ſhould they return under the dominion of their former ſovereign.

Theſe propoſitions were anſwered by ſeveral members: among others, by Cambon and Tallien, who thought that Belgium and the other provinces could only be regarded as conquered countries. Tallien even mentioned the declaration ſo often repeated, that France wiſhed not to make conqueſts. He treated the meaſures propoſed by Duhem as precipitate and impolitic, and as touching on the important, but hitherto undecided queſtion, viz. What are the political principles of the French people? He called for the order of the day, which was generally adopted.

Such are the arguments offered by thoſe who think that a ſuſpenſion of arms is nigh at hand, and that a peace will be made before the opening of the campaign of 1795.

Let us now conſider the opinions of thoſe who think that another campaign will take place—that it will be more deciſive than the preceding ones—and that it will be conducted on principles different from the ſyſtem which the combined powers have hitherto purſued:

1ſt, It appears that it would be a matter of great difficulty, not to ſay, impoſſibility, to make the French conſent to the reſtitution of the conquered

quered countries, unleſs England ſhould agree to reſtore the iſlands of Corſica, and her conqueſts in the two Indies, to which we do not ſee how ſhe can conſent, after having conſidered theſe conqueſts as a juſt indemnification for the expences of the war; which ſyſtem of indemnity has been countenanced by parliament.

2dly, In contradiction of what has been advanced, it appears certain that earl Spencer has actually concluded a treaty which binds the emperor to the continuation of the war in concert with England. Some of the articles of this treaty are even thought to be known; for inſtance, that Great Britain ſhall have in pay 60,000 Auſtrians, 25,000 of whom are to be employed by our government wherever it may think proper; — that the corps under the orders of the prince de Conde ſhall be taken into pay from the firſt of December next, and that that prince ſhall be authoriſed to increaſe it to 30,000 men, by uniting it to the other French corps raiſing, or to be raiſed, at the expence of England and Holland.

3dly, It muſt be obſerved, that the deliberation of the diet of Ratiſbon to negociate a peace, was preceded by a grant of the *quintuple-contingent* for the next campaign; and that the ſubſequent reſolution of entering into a negociation, might only be for the purpoſe of giving greater activity to the levying this quintuple-contingent, by holding out to the petty ſtates of Germany the hopes of a ſpeedy peace, provided they would only ſhew their determination and power to carry on the war, ſhould their offers be rejected.

4thly, We cannot have ſufficient ſecurity for peace, unleſs it is guaranteed by France, after having eſtabliſhed a ſtable conſtitution and regular government. It is admitted, that the majority of the convention advances neater to that point than formerly. But this ſyſtem has yet exiſted only two months; and we know, that in revolutions, a very trifling circumſtance is ſufficient to make things paſs from order to confuſion. It is true that the focus of anarchy, which reſided in the jacobins, is annihilated, or at leaſt reduced to a ſtate that leave no room to apprehend freſh exploſions. It is alſo true, that the repreſentative body never poſſeſſed, in a greater degree, the confidence of the majority of the nation; that it has uſurped all the powers of government, and has the armed force at its command; that the conſtituted authorities have returned within the bounds of juſt ſubordination; in a word, that every thing tends toward that ſyſtem of unity, which may bring on ſome ſort of regular government. But, nevertheleſs, great divitions ſtill exiſt in the convention; and the members of the old committees of public welfare and general ſecurity, who, whether from fear or direct influence, were the accomplices of all the enormities commited under the reign of Robeſpierre, frequently experience very direct and violent attacks. The ſitting of Oct. 22, preſented the appearance of very ſerious quarrels, which may even produce bloodſhed. Theſe quarrels ſeem to be only the preliminaries of ſtill greater, which may ariſe from the trial of the members of the revolutionary commiſſion of Nantes, and the report on the 71 deputies, impriſoned ſince the revolution of May 31, 1793;—a report which will either condemn that revolution, or reſtore 71 Briſſotins to the convention, who will fortify the party to which they owe their preſervation.

But to return to our queſtion, nothing is more certain than that immenſe preparations are making for a new campaign, more vigorous, more direct, and more deciſive, than any of the preceding. Nothing is more uncertain than the arguments whence we are to infer the approach of peace. It is eaſy to wiſh for peace, but difficult to obtain it; the more ſo, as the interior ſituation of France is diſtracted by thoſe who govern it, and expoſed in the weſtern provinces to a civil war, more ſerious than is generally imagined.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, October 1794.

D.	H.	Bar.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	30,89	52	57	57	3	N 1	
	2	30,22	60	60,5	50	3	W 1	. rainy night
2	7	30,16	55	60	53	h	WSW 1	gentle rain at times
	2	30,12	57,5	61	56,5	h	WSW 1	. little rain at times
3	7	30,04	54,5	60	59,5	h	SW 1	. drizzling: chiefly fine
	2	29,95	55	61	54,5	4	S 1	. little rain
4	7	29,77	52	59	58	5	S 1	. chiefly drizzling or gentle rain
	2	29,77	56	61	58	5	WNW 1	gentle rain. fine eve
5	7	27,82	44	56	55	2	W 2	. hazy. cloudy: rain
	2	29,69	51	57,5	53,5	5	S 2	chiefly gentle rain. very windy night
6	7	29,19	49,5	57	54,5	5	W 4	little wet. fine
	2	29,28	53,5	56	49	3	W 4	. less wind. clear night
7	7	29,60	42,5	53,5	52	1	W 1	. more cloudy: little rain
	2	29,60	53,5	57	52,5	5	WSW 1	. rainy eve and night: fine
8	7	29,29	49	56,5	54,5	3	W 1	hazy: shower of rain and hail
F	2	29,45	53	57,5	51,5	1	W 2	
9	7	29,70	44,5	54	51	3	W 1	. hazy
	2	29,80	54	57	49	4	W 1	hazy. foggy eve. little rain
10	7	29,71	59	58	60	5	SSW 2	. fine
	2	29,62	64	62,5	52	3	SSW 3	. less wind: little rain
11	7	29,43	59,5	61,5	59,5	4	S 2	. showers. more wind and fine
	2	29,50	61,5	62	61,5	1	SW 4	. less wind
12	7	29,83	45,5	57,5	52,5	1	SW 1	
	2	29,88	57	62	47,5	2	WSW 1	. foggy night
13	7	29,87	42	54	54	1	N 1	foggy. fine
	2	29,79	54	58	50	1	E 2	. cloudy night: rain
14	7	29,48	54,5	58	63	6	E 1	little rain. shower from SW. fine
	2	29,52	60	61	54,5	2	SW 3	. cloudy eve and less wind: rain
15	7	29,75	56,5	60	61	4	SW 1	. fine
	2	29,95	62	62	51,5	2	SSW 2	
16	7	30,12	55	62	62,5	3	SSE 1	hazy
	2	30,09	61,5	63,5	52,5	3	SSE 1	hazy
17	7	30,04	54	61	60	h	SSE 1	. fine
	2	29,93	60	61,5	52	3	SSW 2	. cloudy eve. much rain: fine
18	7	29,83	46	59	53	0	WSW 2	: cloudy
	2	29,83	55,5	56	51	4	W 2	little rain at times. fine eve
19	7	30,01	43,5	56,5	55,5	2	W 1	. cloudy: little wet
	2	30,01	51,5	57,5	56	5	W 1	much gentle rain. fine night
20	7	30,04	51,5	58	57,5	h	SSE 0	
	2	30,11	57	60	59	h	SSE 0	. rainy eve and night: fine
21	7	30,26	50	59,5	61	h	NNE 1	. thin clouds but very hazy
	2	30,27	53,5	59	53,5	2	NE 1	hazy
22	7	30,12	50,5	57	60	3	E 1	foggy. cloudy
	2	29,99	55	59	55	6	SE 1	. much rain: fair morn
23	7	29,71	46,5	56,5	57	5	NW 1	
N	2	29,72	48	57	55	5	NW 2	. much rain at times
24	7	29,74	46	55	56	6	NNW 3	. less cloudy
	2	29,79	50	56	56	4	NNW 3	. clear night and less wind
25	7	29,83	40	52,5	56	3	NNW 1	
	2	29,86	50	55	54	2	N 1	. foggy eve
26	7	29,77	46	50	60	h	W 1	
	2	29,70	51	55	59	h	W 1	. much gentle rain at night
27	7	29,40	51	57	62	6	SW 2	much gentle rain
	2	29,25	51	57	62	6	WNW 1	gentle rain. fine
28	7	29,34	41,5	53	57	3	WSW 1	. cloudy. little rain at times
	2	29,32	45,5	53	57	5	NNW 1	. less cloudy: clear night
29	7	29,63	37	52	55	0	W 1	. hazy
	2	29,68	41	51	52,5	3	W 1	hazy. cloudy night: gentle rain
30	7	29,59	45,5	51,5	62	6	SSW 1	little rain. fine but hazy
	2	29,46	51,5	54	56,5	3	WNW 2	
31	7	29,73	45,5	53	58	3	W 1	hazy. foggy and little rain
	2	29,78	53	55,5	62,5	h	W 1	fine night

OBSER-

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* October 1794.

THOUGH ſore throat was not very frequent, a fever ſimilar to that which accompanied it during the laſt month continued to prevail; the eruption on the ſkin was not very frequent, but there was a ſtill ſtronger tendency to *typhus*; large ſecretions of dark coloured bile, took place, which was abſorbed and carried into the circulation, producing yellowneſs in the ſkin, and rendering the urine turbid and of a browniſh-yellow colour, depoſiting a thick ſediment of the ſame colour; the tongue was covered with a thick brown cruſt, and was very dry, the eyes were red and inflamed, and there was, in general, a conſiderable delirium; the pulſe were weak and frequent, accompanied with a great proſtration of ſtrength: it rarely proved fatal, but ran on in general to the fourteenth day, and now and then to the twenty-firſt day; mild purgatives frequently repeated were very neceſſary, and the continued uſe of acids proved very beneficial, but large bliſters applied to the back, and fomenting the feet and legs with warm vinegar and water, proved eminently uſeful; a decoction of the yellow bark (an aromatic bitter lately introduced to public notice by Dr. Relph) was given with great advantage as ſoon as the fever began to decline, and contributed very much to reſtore ſtrength. Gout became very frequent, but was not in general either ſevere or of long duration. Smallpox continued as in the laſt month.

PARTICULARS *of the* ARTS, SCIENCES, *and* COMMERCE *of* England, *from the* Heptarchy *to the End of the Reign of* Richard II: *being a Continuation of the curious Extracts from* Andrews' Hiſtory of England, *in our laſt Number.*

POETRY was in the higheſt eſteem with all the northern nations, and the fragments left by the Welch bards ſhew that Britain ſtood forward in that ſcience. It wanted not regal encouragement: 'ſhould I deſire the moon of my prince as a preſent,' (ſings a Briton with a happy enthuſiaſm) 'he would beſtow it on me.'—*Specimens of Welch Poetry.*

The ſacred regard in which the minſtrels were held even by the barbarous Danes, is plainly ſhown by the method that Alfred took to inſpect the camp of his foe.

Muſic was not unknown in the gloomy times of which we treat: the harp was univerſally ſtudied and honoured by Saxons and Britons. A crwth or crowd, which in ſome meaſure reſembled the modern violin, was uſed in Wales: in the reign of Edgar, St. Dunſtan gave a fine organ to Glaſtonbury; and thus W. of Malmſbury deſcribes it:—'Organo, ubi per æneas fiſtulas muſicis menſuris elaboratas, dudum conceptas, follis vomit anxius auras.'

But it was to vocal improvements in church-muſic that the greateſt attention was paid in England: teachers were ſent for at a great coſt from diſtant countries; and the monks frequently travelled to Rome, that they might learn to excel their brethren in a ſcience on which their promotion often depended.—*Bede, &c.*

Bells, though not large ones, grew common throughout Europe toward the tenth century, and were hung in the wooden towers of * churches; the altars alone, were ordered by the

* The application of bells, as well as the degree of favour ſhewn to their muſic, has varied much at different periods. We are told by M. Paris, that the bells were not allowed to ring at funerals, apparently from their inſpiring too gay ideas. On the other hand at a time ſomewhat later, the citizens of Bourdeaux who had for rebellious behaviour been deprived of their bells, refuſed to receive them again, 'having never been ſo happy as ſince they had been rid of their odious jangling.'

canons to be built of ſtone.—*Mezeray.*

In the reign of Athelſtan, Turketul, abbot of Croyland, gave to that monaſtery the firſt ſet of bells (as Ingulphus aſſerts) ever known in England. Nevertheleſs there had been ſingle bells in England in the ſeventh century. The venerable Bede makes mention of them.

The firſt clock which appeared in Europe was probably that which Eginhard, the ſecretary of Charlemagne deſcribes as ſent to his royal maſter by Abdallà king of Perſia: 'A horologe of braſs, wonderfully conſtructed, for the courſe of the twelve hours anſwered to the hour-glaſs, with as many little brazen balls, which dropt down on a ſort of bells underneath and ſounded each hour.'

The Venetians had clocks in 872, and ſent a ſpecimen of them in that year to Conſtantinople.

The neceſſary art of making woollen cloth was brought to ſuch perfection in England that a Norman writer ſpeaks of Engliſh weavers with admiration. The value of a ſheep's fleece was well underſtood and rated at two fifths of the animal's whole price.

The art of dying cloths was not unknown in England. On the continent it was common.

At Rome and Ravenna, and in ſome large French towns there were in the ninth century manufacturers of woollen ſtuffs and of iron wares inlaid with gold and ſilver: they made glaſs alſo. Silk was not woven in the weſt until near 400 years afterward, but the Venetians began to import it from Conſtantinople.

St. Boniface deſires about this time a German biſhop to ſend him 'ſome cloth with a long nap, to be uſed in waſhing his feet.' He appears to mean woollen cloth. Linen was extremely ſcarce: this circumſtance probably occaſioned the leproſies ſo common in the early ages.—*Voltaire.*

Phyſic and chirurgery were in the early ages at a low ebb; old women ſeem chiefly to have ſtudied the medical arts among the northern nations; and as they mingled charms and ſpells with their preſcriptions, the patient's fancy ſometimes effected or at leaſt aſſiſted the cure: as Chriſtianity gained ground, the clergy having time on their hands applied themſelves to the ſtudy of medicine, but made ſo little progreſs that, for a long ſpace, holy-water was the preſcription to which they chiefly truſted.—*Keyſler. Ant. Sept. Bede.*

The means of ſupplying life with neceſſaries were but imperfectly known and cultivated. The poor pagans of Suſſex though ſtarving for want of food, knew not how to catch any fiſh except eels, until biſhop Wilfred (who in 678 took ſhelter in that diſtrict) inſtructed them in the uſe of nets. He took three hundred at a draught; and by thus ſupplying the bodily wants of his catechumens rendered their minds tractable to his doctrines, and eaſily accompliſhed their converſion.—*V. Wilfr.*

We know little of the ſtate of agriculture in England: in the laws of Wales are many regulations reſpecting ploughs, which were ſo ſcarce that ſocieties were formed under legal protection to fit them out with oxen, geer, &c.—*Leg. Wall.*

Throughout the iſland the monks were much the beſt huſbandmen; they ſeem to have been alſo the only gardeners; and we have actually a record deſcribing a pleaſant and fruit-bearing cloſe at Ely, cultivated in 674 by Brithnoth its firſt abbot.—*Hiſt. El. apud Gal.*

Our Saxon anceſtors could give more ſatisfactory reaſons for the names of their months than we can for ours. December, which ſtood firſt was ſtyled 'Midwinter monath.' January was 'Aefter-yula,' or after Chriſtmas. February 'Sol-monath,' from the returning ſun. March, 'Rhede or Rethe-monath,' rough or rugged month. April, 'Eaſter-monath,' from a favourite Saxon goddeſs, whoſe name we ſtill preſerve. May was 'Trimilchi,'

milchi,' from the cows being then milked thrice in the day. 'June, 'Seremonath;' dry month. July, 'Mædmonath,' the meads being then in their bloom. Auguſt was 'Weod-monath,' from the luxuriance of weeds. September, 'Hærfeſt-monath.' October they called 'Winter fyllith,' from winter approaching with the full moon of that month. And laſtly, November was ſtyled 'blot monath,' from the blood of the cattle ſlain in that month and ſtored for winter proviſion. Verſtegan names the months ſomewhat differently.

Architecture flouriſhed little among the Anglo Saxons. Vaſt ſums were indeed expended on monaſtic edifices, but coſt, more than taſte or durability, ſeems to have been attended to; Ina one of the princes of the heptarchy, is ſaid by W. of Malmſbury to have laid out 365 pounds of gold and 2887½ pounds of ſilver on the erection and ornaments of a ſingle chapel at Glaſtonbury.

Wilfred, biſhop of York, Benedict Biſcop founder of Weremouth abbey, and a few more are reported to have erected elegant ſtructures: the cathedral at Hexham is highly ſpoken of.—*W. Malm.*

In later times, the edifices raiſed by Alfred and his ſon Edward are much famed. Yet in the days of Edgar the Peaceable, no monaſteries were to be found built of better materials than rotten boards *.—*W. of Malmſb.*

Scotland and Wales had ſtill leſs to boaſt of in point of ſtructures.

The Saxons uſually built their houſes of clay kept together by wooden frames. Bricks were ſcarce and uſed as ornaments.—*Strutt.*

Lambecius ſpeaks of a ſtone edifice raiſed at Hamburgh in or near 1053, which excited the wonder of the country.

The art of making (and probably of painting) glaſs was known; as Wilfred biſhop of York is recorded to have uſed it in York cathedral.—*W. of Malmſb. de Geſt. Pont.*

'Smiths,' as neceſſary in the fitting of arms, were tolerably expert and held in great repute. By the laws of Wales the ſmith held his rank next to that of the chaplain at the prince's court.—*Leg. Wal.*

Very highly finiſhed works in gold and ſilver were the produce even of our darkeſt ages. The monks, (whoſe time in retirement might well be ſo employed) were the beſt artiſts: St. Dunſtan had great fame in this branch of ſculpture. A jewel, (now in the Muſæum at Oxford) undoubtedly made by command of, and worn by the great Alfred, is an exiſting witneſs of the height to which the art was carried. Curious reliquaries, finely wrought and ſet with precious ſtones, were uſually ſtyled throughout Europe, 'Opera Anglica.'—*W. of Malmſb.*

The uſe of gold and ſilver was not unknown to the Welch in 842 when their laws were collected. The man who dared to inſult the king of Aberfraw, was to pay (beſide certain cows, and a ſilver rod) a cup which would hold as much wine as his majeſty could ſwallow at a draught; its cover was to be a broad as the king's face; and the whole, as thick as a gooſe's egg or a ploughman's thumb-nail.—*Leg. Wal.*

That embroidery was much attended to in Normandy, the celebrated tapeſtry, worked by Matilda the wife of William the Conqueror, and ſtill ſhewn at Bayeux is an undeniable proof. A contemporary writer (William of Poictiers) praiſes the ſkill of the Anglo-Saxon ladies in this delicate art, and the mantle of Witlaff king of Mercia proves that it had long been known in Britain.

The commerce of Britain appears to have been very little attended to during the heptarchy; Offa king of Mercia was checked by Charlemagne

* St. Paul's cathedral was burnt down in 961, and built up again within the year. What muſt the materials have been!—*Maitland.*

when

when he attempted to enlarge it; and Alcuinus (the Mercian ambaſſador) could gain very little for his country, although he eſtabliſhed his own intereſt with the weſtern emperor. Pilgrims to holy places were the ſmugglers of that eccentric period; and their baggage oftener conſiſted of prohibited merchandiſe, than of reliques or proviſion.—*W. of Malmſb.*

The great Alfred had enlarged ideas of commerce: he ſent rich preſents to the inhabitants of the Indian peninſula; and received from thence jewels of conſiderable value. One day he gave to the hiſtorian Aſſer, a ſilken cloak and a large parcel of frankincenſe.—*Aſſer. V. Alfr.*

Hence it is plain he had found means to acquire the rich commodities of the eaſt.

Edward the elder followed the ſteps of Alfred; and Athelſtan promulgated excellent laws in favour of ſea-adventurers. By theſe encouragements the mariners and ſhipping of England increaſed ſo much that the fleet of Edgar the Peaceable is ſpoken of by hiſtorians as numerous beyond modern credibility.

During the unhappy reign of Ethelred the unready, the commerce of London moſt unaccountably maintained its ground; and we find ſeveral humane laws made under that prince for the protection of diſtreſſed foreign merchantmen; there was a company of German traders, called 'emperor's men,' who reſided even then in London and paid a tribute yearly to the king for his protection.—*Anderſon.*

There were ſhips from Normandy, &c. which brought wine. There were fiſhing-boats which paid toll, and Blynegeſgate (Billingſgate) was the moſt noted quay of London.—*Leg. Ethelr.*

The ſeamen of London are expreſsly mentioned by more than one hiſtorian as taking an active part as to the diſpoſal of the crown together with the other citizens, when Ethelred II deſerted the throne. Beſide this, the great fleets, which were more than once fitted out at a very ſhort notice during that unhappy reign, prove that mariners muſt have abounded, although the quarrels and treachery of their leaders rendered their ſkill and valour uſeleſs.

Among the Anglo-Normans, the ſcience of medicine (as well as that of law) was monopolized by the clergy. It could not be otherwiſe; for with eccleſiaſtics only, in the early centuries, was the reſidence of literature.

In neither ſcience * did the monk excel. The ſucceſſive deaths of a king of England and a duke of Auſtria, each (as is ſaid) through the ignorance of their medical attendants; and the perpetual complaints reſpecting diſhoneſty, bribery and injuſtice in the courts of law, too clearly witneſs that the weight of three ſciences was too great to be borne by one diviſion (and that a narrow-ſpirited and fanatic one) of ſociety.

* John of Saliſbury ſeverely laſhes in his Polycraticon the pedantry, vanity and greedineſs of his medical contemporaries. Yet (he ſays) he writes in fear; as he frequently is obliged to be under their care, worthleſs as they are. 'At length he takes courage; 'Two maxims,' (he writes) 'they never violate; not to regard the poor and always to take money of the rich.'

How juſtly may the eighteenth century boaſt that phyſicians and ſurgeons now make as much intereſt for permiſſion to wait on the pooreſt and moſt miſerable of their fellow-creatures, collected together in hoſpitals, as for the moſt ſhewy attendance even on the perſon of the ſovereign!

When any ſingular diſeaſe occurred, recourſe was frequently had in the early ages to Jew phyſicians: who were ſuppoſed to have more knowledge and practical ſucceſs than their Chriſtian brethren in ſcience. As the practice of phyſic was very profitable it tempted the monks to neglect their conventual duty; inſomuch that it was found neceſſary at the council of Tours in 1163, to form a canon in order to reſtrain theſe avaricious eccleſiaſtics from leaving their convent to act as phyſicians during more than two months at one time.—*Bulæi Hiſt. Un. Pariſienſis.*

In another branch of knowledge, and perhaps one more immediately uſeful, that of agriculture, the prieſt ſucceeded * better. The foreign monks brought many improvements in huſbandry from Flanders, Normandy, &c. and with their own hands aſſiſted in putting them in practice. The monk Gerveſe tells us that Thomas à Becket condeſcended to go with his clergy and aſſiſt the neighbours in reaping their corn and houſing their hay; and theſe clerical exertions were thought ſo meritorious, that a decree in the Lateran council (A. D. 1179.) encourages every monk to become a farmer; and holds out to him, while ſo employed, immunity and protection.

The inſtruments of huſbandry were (according to Mr. Strutt whoſe obſervations are made from contemporary drawings) ſo near to thoſe of the preſent age in point of form, that any deſcription of them would be totally unneceſſary.—*Complete View, &c.*

The farmers of Scotland were apparently ſome years behind their ſouthern brethren in the ſtudy of huſbandry; and thoſe of Wales are remarked by Giraldus Cambrenſis to have prepared their land for wheat in a different method from that uſed in England; to have uſed a ſickle which had two wooden handles; and to have made the driver of their ploughs walk backward while guiding his horſes.

The art of gardening had great improvement from the Normans; particularly with reſpect to the culture of the vine which, according to W. of Malmſbury, had in his time arrived at ſuch perfection within the vale of Gloucester, that a ſweet and palatable wine 'little inferior to that of France,' was made there in abundance.

The very neceſſary art of making woollen cloth (introduced or at leaſt highly improved in England by colonies of Flemings) ſeems to have flouriſhed more in the eleventh and twelfth centuries than in thoſe immediately ſucceeding; this may be reaſonably accounted for by the civil wars, which deſolated the iſland and ruined every ſpecies of commerce and manufacture under Stephen, John and Henry III.

And here, in juſtice to our ſiſter-iſland we ought to bring forward the teſtimony of an Italian poet and traveller 'Fazio degli Uberti,' who in his 'Dittamondi' thus records the ſerges or ſays of Ireland, in the beginning of the fourteenth century.

Similimente paſſamo in Irlanda,
La qual fra noi è degna di fama
Per le nobile ſaie che ci manda.

IMITATED.

To Ireland then our ſails we raiſe.
Ireland, which merits well our praiſe
By ſending us its noble ſays.

J. P. A.

The dictionary Della Cruſca ſpeaks of Iriſh ſays; and Madox and Rymer are not ſilent concerning the friezes, and other woollen manufactures of Ireland, in the time of Henry III and Richard II. Theſe circumſtances give to the Iriſh the priority of a ſteady woollen manufacture.—*Tranſactions of R. Iriſh Academy.*

If poetry did not flouriſh in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, it ſeems not to have failed for want of patronage. The Saxon Matilda, queen to Henry Beauclerc, was, as we are told by W. of Malmſbury, a generous and even profuſe protectreſs of poets. Longchamp, the favourite miniſter of Richard Cœur de Lion, kept many bards in his pay, (as Benedict the abbot writes) and even allured minſtrels from France to enliven the ſtreets of London by their ſongs; and Richard himſelf was the moſt liberal of patrons to poets, minſtrels,

* Sometimes the baron became an enterpriſing farmer.- Richard de Rulos, chamberlain to the firſt William, drained bogs, incloſed commons and (after building the ſignificantly-named town of Deeping in Lincolnſhire) changed the banks of the Welland from quagmires to gardens and orchards.—*Henry from Ingulphus.*

&c.

&c. The works however which met ſuch encouragement from people of rank were probably compoſed in the Norman or French languages.

Muſic (like her ſiſter poetry) was much cheriſhed by the firſt Anglo-Normans, and the minſtrels in particular were ſo much favoured that the Saxon Matilda is ſaid by W. of Malmſbury to have expended her treaſures upon them and even to have oppreſſed her tenants in order to raiſe ſums of money to reward them. But it was church-muſic which was moſt ſteadily attended to. The great advantages attendant on the diſcoveries of Guido Aretin, (which made the ſcience comparatively * eaſy) were for ſome time appropriated ſolely to ſacred uſes; and the frequent intercourſe between the Engliſh prelates and the papal metropolis, occaſioned every improvement to be eaſily tranſplanted from Italy to Britain. Accordingly the enervate graces of Italy had made ſuch progreſs in little more than an hundred years, that John of Saliſbury ſtyles the Engliſh muſic of his day, 'effeminate;' and ſays that 'it has debaſed the dignity and ſtained the purity of religious worſhip.'

Sculpture, under the extenſive protection of ſuperſtition, flouriſhed in the ages we now examine. The patron ſaint at leaſt adorned every church; and in the cathedral and conventual edifices images abounded.

Painting, although the accurate Vertue cannot trace it ſo high, was much uſed in the eleventh and twelfth centuries to decorate churches, by the Anglo-Normans; the monk Gerveſe celebrates the beautiful paintings in the cathedral of Canterbury, built by archbiſhop Lanfranc, in the eleventh century; and Stubbs praiſes the pictured ornaments in the church of St. John at Beverley, which were of a ſtill earlier date.

Peter of Blois ſatirically laſhes the barons of his age (that of Henry II) for cauſing both their ſhields and ſaddles to be painted with beautiful repreſentations of combats, that they might ſatiate their eyes with the proſpect of what they were too daſtardly to engage in.

The illumination of books was a branch of miniature-painting much followed by the monks; and with great ſucceſs. The materials, which theſe holy artiſts employed, were ſo durable that their miſſals ſtill dazzle our eyes with the brightneſs of their colour and the ſplendour of their gilding.

Stone, toward the cloſe of the eleventh century came into uſe in large buildings; and glaſs was not uncommon in private houſes, although looked on as a luxury.—*Anderſon.*

In 1087, St. Mary's church in Cheapſide, was built on ſtone-arches, whence its epithet 'Le Bow or de Arcubus.'—*Ibid.*

The ſtone-bridge which queen Matilda built at Stratford in Eſſex, near the ſame period, gave alſo the name of 'Le Bow' to the place. Theſe are teſtimonies of the ſcarcity of ſtone-arches in the eleventh age.—*Ibid.*

In 1176, one Coleman, a prieſt, began to build London-bridge of ſtone, in conſequence of an order made by the king and council. It was about thirty-three years ere finiſhed, and the courſe of the Thames was changed during that time, by a trench (probably that made by Canute) from

* We know little of this ingenious monk except that he was a native of Arezzo in Italy. Even the laborious Bayle can tell us nothing of his hiſtory. He only denies his having written againſt the arch-heretic Berengarius. The diſcovery was ſurely great and the good prieſt had at leaſt an adequate idea of its conſequence; for, in a letter to the pope, he not only affirms that one year's attention to the ſcience of muſic will now equal the proficiency gained before by ten years labour, which is probably true enough; but he alſo intimates his perſuaſion that 'by this happy thought (inſpired as he believes from heaven) 'he had atoned for all his ſins and ſecured the ſalvation of his ſoul.'—*Baronius.*

Batterſea to Rotherhithe.—*Stow's Survey.*

Some few citizens had then houſes of ſtone.

St. Paul's, in London, having been conſumed by fire was re-built in 1183, and the following year, on arches of ſtone; 'a wonderful work,' ſay the authors of the day. But although the workmen employed in the buſineſs were from France and the materials from Normandy, yet even the city of Paris, could not at this period, boaſt of any pavement in her ſtreets.

The few remains that we have of caſtles, &c. built before the thirteenth century, appear ſtrong and heavy, with very little gracefulneſs. But the era approached when the ſolemn and affecting Gothic ſtyle was to ſhine out and throw a ſtrong ſhade on the ſolid Saxon and the uncouth Britiſh, under the patronage of the taſteful though weak Henry III, and of his glorious offspring Edward I.

The commerce of England, which had not been contemptible even during the ravages of her various ſpoilers, began in the eleventh and twelfth centuries to increaſe with ſome rapidity. Beſide London, (whoſe opulent traders were ſtyled 'Barons*,' and ſome of whoſe ſtreets were excluſively tenanted by the moſt rich Jews of Europe) York, Briſtol, Canterbury, Exeter, and many other towns (low as their inhabitants were rated in the Doomſday-book) grew rich and reſpectable by their attention to trade and navigation.—*W. Malmſb. Stow.*

It is painful to relate that for ſome years after the Norman invaſion, ſlaves continued to compoſe a part of the exports from England to foreign parts and particularly to Ireland, notwithſtanding the decree iſſued by the great council ſitting in 1102, at St. Peter's, Weſtminſter, againſt this odious traffic.—*Eadmer. Hiſt. Novor.*

More laudable exports were horſes†, wool, leather, cloth, corn, lead ‡, and tin. The imports were wines ||, gold and precious ſtones, ſilk and tapeſtry, drugs and § ſpices, furs, materials for dying and ſome corn.

The only manufacture of any conſequence which England poſſeſſed about this time, was that of wool, which ſhe owed to the ſage and foſtering hand of the intuitive third Edward. In ſpite of the brutal diſguſt of his abſurd ſubjects, that reſolute prince, by bringing many Flemiſh and other foreign artiſts to ſettle in the iſland, opened the ſluice to a torrent of proſperous wealth which in the ſpace of more than four centuries has continued to fertilize our land.

* A privilege alſo enjoyed by the merchants of the Cinque-ports, in Kent and Suſſex, whoſe repreſentatives are ſtill ſtyled 'Barons.' Theſe towns were bound (in conſideration of conſiderable immunities) to ſupply the government of England with fifty-ſeven ſhips at forty-day's notice; and to pay their crews during fifteen days.—*Lib. Pub. Scacc.*

† The horſes of England were always valuable. A baron named Amphicill Till agreed to pay to the exorbitant John for his ranſom ten horſes, each worth thirty marks, nearly equivalent to three hundred pounds of modern money.—*Rym. Fad. apud Henry.*

‡ Moſt of the cathedral and abbey churches and many palaces and public buildings in France and other diſtricts on the continent, are ſaid to have been covered with the lead of England.—*Hiſt. Literaire de la France.*

|| So important did the regulation of their wines appear to the Anglo-Normans that a jury was appointed in each city, borough, &c. to examine the merit and ſettle the value of this exciſing commodity, 'and by this means,' (ſays the contemporary Hoveden) 'the land was filled with drink and drunkards.—*Ann. Reg. Joh.*

§ Spices were favourite ingredients in the meat, the drink and the medicines of our anceſtors. 'The Sabeans' (ſays Fitz-Stephen) 'import to London their frankincenſe and other ſpices; and from the rich country about Babylon they bring oil of palms.'

The CONFESSION *of* ROBERT WATT, *who was executed for* HIGH TREASON, *at* Edinburgh, *October* 15, 1794.

THE dying declaration and confeſſion of Robert Watt, has been publiſhed at Edinburgh by authority, atteſted by the rev. doctor Baird, principal of the univerſity of Edinburgh, and the rev. T. S. Jones, one of the miniſters of lady Glenorchie's chapel. This declaration, which was written with Watt's own hand, and ſigned by him the evening before his execution, was ſealed up in his preſence, addreſſed by himſelf to the ſheriff, and delivered to the commanding officer of the caſtle, who forwarded it and a parcel, containing ſome other papers, on the ſame evening, to the ſheriff.

The packet contained a letter from Watt to the ſheriff, requeſting him to deliver the declaration and other papers to the principal Baird and the rev. Mr. Jones, to do with them as they ſhould think fit.

Watt commences his confeſſion by an account of the ſtate of his mind with reſpect to religious opinions and impreſſions. He proves himſelf to have been a man of a weak and gloomy turn of mind, upon which ſome fanatical notions of religion had the chief effect of producing melancholy and deſpair.

He acknowledges himſelf to have poſſeſſed a large ſhare of pride and ambition. Under the influence of the latter, in the hope of raiſing himſelf in the world, he commenced a correſpondence with Mr. Dundas and the lord advocate, upon the ground of what he called public utility.

'My firſt connection with the friends of the people (ſays Watt) was in 1791, or 1792. I ſeveral times attended the committee which met in Mather's tavern; but would never ſubſcribe my name, though repeatedly required to do it. This was the era of my correſpondence with Mr. Dundas. Two reaſons induced me to this unhappy conduct. One, a love of the peace of ſociety—I apprehended, that if they were permitted to continue their meetings, the public tranquillity would be interrupted. This opinion was founded on my ignorance of the many abuſes in the adminiſtrative—the offspring of corruption in the legiſlative branch of government. For when the legiſlative becomes more corrupted than the executive, there is an end of true liberty.—And that the people had a right to meet and deliberate on, and to obtain a redreſs of grievances.—The other reaſon, to obtain Mr. Dundas' favour, that I might the ſooner arrive at that ſtation in ſociety to which my views were directed. Some may imagine that I had perſonal hatred at ſome of the friends of the people, but this was by no means the caſe.

Mr. Dundas wiſhed me to correſpond with the lord advocate, and accordingly recommended me to him. My correſpondence with him continued to Auguſt or September 1793, when it was diſcontinued.

My mind being then changed in favour of reform, I entered into the committees of union and ways and means *, in order to co-operate with them to the obtaining of a reform. Naturally ambitious and enterpriſing, I was ſoon the leader of theſe committees. By my advice, the committee of ways and means, or ſecret committee, was formed; and its regulations drawn up by me. Theſe regulations contained alſo directions to the primary ſocieties, and to the committee of union. The circular letter, though compoſed by Mr. Stoke, was adviſed by me. And though the addreſs to the ſencibles was not moved by me, I heartily approved of it. All theſe papers I got printed; and the whole impreſſion was diſperſed, but the addreſs to the ſencibles, of which I knew nothing, after printed.

My plans, I doubt not, would, when ripe for execution, be effectual. Bloodſhed was what I abhorred from the bottom of my ſoul: they therefore guarded againſt that evil as much as may be. I ſhall here narrate them.—Other perſons, as Archibald Wright, weaver in Edinburgh, and —— Craig, Perth, beſide John Fairley, were ſent at different times through the country, to ſound the public mind, and to give inſtructions. The intelligence brought me, from time to time, by theſe perſons, from every quarter of the kingdom, was more and more favourable. All their inſtructions were delivered by myſelf—But ſuch as I knew I could fully confide in, their inſtructions went farther than thoſe of others. Indeed, at the time I was apprehended, there were but very few places that information was not received from; and there remained almoſt nothing to do, for the execution of the whole, but a viſit

* Of the Friends of the People.

to

to England and Ireland, by intelligent and confidential perſons.

The firſt movement was intended to be made in Edinburgh, London and Dublin; while every town throughout the kingdoms were in readineſs to act, according to the plan, on the very firſt notice, which was to be given by couriers diſpatched by expreſs.

The nature of the plan was this—A body of men, to the number of four or five thouſand, were to be aſſembled in a place to be fixed on. Theſe were to be armed with pikes, guns, grenades—to be properly divided, with proper leaders. In regard to Edinburgh, theſe were to be placed at the Gælic chapel, head of the Weſtbow, tolbooth, or head of the High-ſtreet,—that when the caſtle ſoldiers came out, they might be ſurrounded. In order to prevent bloodſhed, means were to be uſed to gain as many of the ſoldiers as poſſible over to their ſide. The regiment was to be enticed out by companies. But, previous to this, the magiſtrates, lords of juſticiary, commander in chief, and many others in town to be ſelected, were to be apprehended; but to be treated, in every reſpect, becoming their ſtation in life, and detained till the mind of the enſuing convention, or rather parliament, was known. There was no intention whatever to put any to death; but if found guilty of oppreſſion and injuſtice to the patriots, to ſhare a ſimilar fate with them, viz. tranſportation.

The manner in which the ſoldiers were to be induced to leave the caſtle was by means of a letter, either ſigned by the lord provoſt or commander in chief, previouſly in cuſtody, ordering the commandant to ſend a company, without any ammunition, to a fire, that was to be kindled in St. Andrew's-ſquare, under the pretence of its being a houſe on fire; and the ſaid company to be ſecured and diſarmed in the meantime. The moſt of the remainder to be drawn out in the ſame manner, by means of fires kindled in ſucceſſion in other quarters of the city.

But in caſe they either could not be drawn out of the caſtle, or had obtained information of what was doing, they were to be compelled to ſurrender, by being deprived of victuals;—the incarceration of the commander in chief, and the influence of party among themſelves favouring the plan.

The public-offices and the banks were to be ſecured, by placing proper perſons as centinels over them, till the proprietors and managers appeared next morning. The ſame were to be conſulted with by qualified perſons, to be previouſly choſen. The property of ſuch perſons, either reſiding in town or country, deemed inimical to liberty, in the hands of bankers, was to be ſealed up, but what was neceſſary for their maintenance, till their fate was known.

The poſt-office was to be taken poſſeſſion of; as thereby all intercourſe would be cut off between ſuch as were hoſtile to the patriots, while the channel of communication was left open for them.

After theſe things were effected in Edinburgh, London, and Dublin, in one and the ſame night; and which was expected to be accompliſhed about ſix or ſeven o'clock in the morning,—couriers were immediately to be diſpatched throughout the whole nation, to the leaders in other parts; while troops were to be marched from places to be fixed on, that could ſpare them to the aſſiſtance of ſuch as would be deemed neceſſary. No ſooner was the plan executed in the three metropoliſſes, than proclamations, previouſly prepared, were to be iſſued to the landholders, and officers under government, as did not cordially unite with the patriots in their views, and deſigns, not to go above three miles beyond their dwelling places, under pain of death;—to farmers, not to conceal or export any grain;—to ſhip-maſters not to carry any perſon coaſtwiſe, without giving intimation of the ſame; place come from, and where going to, of ſuch perſon or perſons, within a reaſonable time after ſuch intimation was given, to the neareſt juſtice of peace, that the ſame might be called to an examination, under a ſimilar penalty;—to ſuch perſons as were authoriſed to levy men, to deliver up their commiſſions and men to perſons to be nominated, under the ſame penalty.

There was preparing an addreſs to be made to the king at the ſame time, conſiſting of a long catalogue of abuſes, both in the legiſlative and executive branches of government; and requeſting of him the diſmiſſal of his preſent ſervants, and a diſſolution of parliament, the ſame to be replaced by men in whom the people could confide.

With regard to the pikes, I got them made both for ſale and diſtribution. I do not at preſent recollect what inſtructions I might have given at the making of them. Whatever theſe inſtructions were, I am

certain that none I had were ever distributed *.

There was no person concerned in these things but the committee of ways and means—because I was morally certain, from the aspect of affairs, that as soon as the operations were commenced, persons in the various ranks of society would carry it on.—I have therefore no new discoveries to make.

I can judge of my intentions from my feelings,—my views were the good of society; and not robbery or murder. I will not say but my own interest was blended in these views; for who is he, that if he serves society, but will naturally expect a reward? But divine Providence has been pleased to permit me to be brought into circumstances of misery and woe—I hope they have been the best reward that could be conferred on me. I however patiently, and I hope thankfully, accept of these as coming from God, not only as the sovereign disposer of all events, but as my merciful Redeemer.

In reflection, I see that although my intentions were good, and probable evils endeavoured to be guarded against, yet circumstances might have proved such, as would have caused me to repent my having gone so far, although my person were safe, which I sincerely do this day.

Though the part I acted proceeded from the best of motives; yet, on reflection, I perceive that I erred in taking such an active part, without maturely weighing the probable consequences. Bloodshed and rapine might have ensued. This would have involved me in guilt; being somewhat accessary to them, though not intentionally so.

The duty of all sincere christians is, 'to lead quiet and peaceable lives in all godliness and honesty, giving honour to whom honour is due, and fear to whom fear.' To leave the reformation of abuses in the state to those who mind only earthly things, except when called to assist in a legal manner. At the throne of grace they may be of more real utility, than either in the cabinet or field of battle.

Had my life been prolonged, I think this would have been my mode of conduct. And I bless God for timely preventing me going the perhaps awful length my ambitious and enterprising mind might have induced me.

I have given no private offence that I know of. Indeed, my sympathising mind, though compounded of pride and ambition, would soon relent. I may truly say, if I know my own deceitful heart, that sympathy to the unfortunate was one cause of my adopting the part that has brought me to my present fate. Reflection on the hardships of others has often brought tears of sympathy from my eyes. Nor have I borrowed money or purchased goods, but with the most upright intentions.—For the satisfaction of my creditors, I will observe, that I had views of being able to pay what I had either borrowed or purchased, had I lived, altogether disconnected with the matter that has brought me to my present unfortunate situation; but in this situation it would be improper to mention what these views were.

Though I have always kept up the worship of God, at stated times, both in the closet and family, and had honest intentions toward my creditors; yet I am convinced, that my departures from God have been very great; and that, in the glass of his holy law, they are innumerable and highly aggravated. And especially the crime for which I am about to suffer, as viewed in its probable consequences. I humbly hope, that the Spirit of God has given me a saving discovery of my sins; and that, in the spirit of genuine contrition, I am led to the precious blood of sprinkling.

In the foregoing narrative, if any article appears imperfect or obscure, I hope the imperfection or obscurity will be ascribed to the urgent pressure of the occasion on which this paper is written. It is a first copy; and, alas! there is not now time to revise or correct.—Of the minutes of life that yet remain to me, even the writing of this sentence has consumed one. But you who now read or hear of this account, remember as you read, that the period is coming when death shall be as near to you as it is to me; and, be assured, you will find that a period when you will shrink with horror from the idea of duplicity or deception. With candour then consider this solemn declaration of a dying man. Nor let prejudices, which appearances have produced against me, lead you to suppose, that, on the brink of eternity, with the throne of judgment in my view, I dare to approach the Omnipotent with a lie in my right hand.

* The pikes were found in my house, when the sheriff's officers were in search of the goods of a bankrupt in Musselburgh, sent to my house, about an eight days before, under the pretence of their being to be forwarded to Glasgow.

Those who, in an official character, began and managed my prosecution, I freely forgive.

Forgive me, my fellow christians, for the reproach thrown by my conduct on religion.

My prayer to God is, that he may inspire all the people with a spirit of subordination and loyalty; and teach them to lead, under the powers that be, quiet and peaceable lives, in godliness and honesty.

O God! soon shall my body be given to the dust, and my soul will ascend to thee. Thou knowest my sincerity in the narrative I have given; thou seest my sorrow for all my sins. Hear me graciously—And, for the sake of the Lord Jesus Christ, receive my soul to everlasting glory. Amen.

This is truth, and the whole truth, as far as I recollect, I declare as a dying man.

(Signed) ROBERT WATT.

Tuesday Evening, Oct. 14, about 8 o'clock at night, 1794.

P. S. In regard of sending pikes to Perth, to the best of my recollection, I talked with Craig about them, and that he told me they should be sent secretly; but I cannot say to what number, nor to whom.

*** Although Watt, soon after his condemnation, promised the clergymen who visited him, to write a confession of his crimes, he delayed the commencement of it till within eight or nine days of his death. On the Wednesday before that event, he had written one sheet; this, it is supposed, he destroyed, as it was not among the papers he left behind him: hitherto he appeared easy in his mind; but on the Friday, Saturday and Lord's-day, much agitated. On this last day he again began to write, but advanced no further than the account he has given of his childhood, &c. By what he said afterwards, it is plain, his hesitation arose from the vain hope of a reprieve. On Monday morning he again appeared calm, and in good spirits; and said he had at last determined to declare all he knew, and employed the morning of that day in writing what is now given to the public—In the evening, the order for his execution was officially intimated to him—on Tuesday he continued writing; and in the evening, between seven and eight o'clock, finished and subscribed the paper now published, and put it under a cover to the sheriff—on Wednesday, 15th October, he was executed—the paper was sealed up in Watt's presence, together with another parcel, containing the letters he received while in prison, and other papers of no importance. Both parcels were by Watt himself addressed to the sheriff, and delivered to the commanding officer of the castle, who sent them to the sheriff, on the Tuesday evening, agreeable to Watt's own particular request.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

VERSES written near the GRAVE of an unfortunate FAIR ONE, who fell a Sacrifice to Perfidy.

AS slowly wand'ring on with pensive tread,
I take my silent solitary way,
Where lock'd in long enduring sleep, the dead
Beneath the surface undistinguish'd lay;

Keen recollection pointed out thy tomb,
Ill-starr'd Amelia, lovely, hapless maid!
Plac'd in my view thy sad untimely doom,
The broken vow, and innocence betray'd.

The darling toast of many an am'rous swain,
Once thou in all the pride of beauty dress'd,
Tript light and careless o'er the vernal plain,
Nor secret anguish gnaw'd thy gentle breast.

Till by false William's flatt'ring speeches won,
Thy heart confess'd love's all-subduing sway;
At length—poor maid! too easily undone!
The wily rover fled thee far away.

That shock too rude, convuls'd thy gentle frame,
A weight of woes so great, too weak to bear,
Too soft to meet the world's opprobrious shame,
Or 'bide the rankling wounds of deep despair.

The pining victim of ill-quited love,
Thy tender bosom with rude passions torn,
Oft have I seen thee wander thro' the grove,
There sigh in secret, and there weep forlorn.

These

These eyes beheld thy virgin bloom decay,
From secret anguish undermining slow,
Health's roseate blush steal unperceiv'd away,
And pale succeed the sickly hue of woe.

So have I known a beauteous lily fade,
Close at whose root, some hidden worm applies
It's cank'ring bite, declines the flow'ret's head,
Low sunk on earth, it drooping pines, and dies.

When whisp'ring by the moon's chaste beam they rove,
The swains and maids, shall at thy tomb appear:
There seal their vows of ever-constant love,
And heave a sigh, and drop a pitying tear.

The mournful cypress grown spontaneous there,
With quiv'ring boughs, upbraids the perjur'd swain,
If on thy grave he steps devoid of care,
The green sod heaves, not heedless of thy pain.

Ah! may thy death a friendly warning give,
(Some comfort for thy melancholy fate)
That maids taught caution, may with fear believe,
Left won too soon, they mourn their fall too late.

EUSEBIUS.

ON TEARS.

TEARS, the soft index of susceptive mind,
Seem, like our truest friend, by nature kind.
When most in need of utterance to tell
Our joys or griefs, they indicate us well;
Well can express the language of the heart,
And more than studied eloquence impart.
Should sympathy awake the mournful sigh,
And touch the spring that fills the pitying eye,
Sacred the sigh, and lovely to the view,
The eye just wet with sympatheric dew.
The tear that dims, can heighten every charm,
Head virtue's cause, and malice self disarm.
Various emotions speak themselves in tears;
They flow from joy, from grief, and chilling fears.
And can these drops, proceeding from one spring,
Such varied passions to the visage bring?
Speak the full working of that boisterous tide,
Swelling the heart of justly wounded pride?
Show baneful rage in person most deform'd,
And the weak citadel by passion storm'd?
From civil contests what dire misery springs,
Reason no more her timely larum rings;
The foe, least dreaded, powerfully assails,
And nought but tumult in the breast prevails.
Such the effect of tears in passion's child;
Not so in touching sorrow truly mild,
Where Innocence must sit by clouds obscur'd,
And undeserv'd reproach must be endured.
The tears that flow from such a source as this,
Shine to the eye of heaven, and purchase bliss.
So the pure pearl array'd in softest white,
Unlike the diamond, dazzling to the sight,
Adorns with modesty, nor seeks the praise
To outshine beauty with the diamond's blaze;
Looks meekly radiant, and mildly clear,
As the eye deck'd by Virtue's silent tear.

A. C.

ON THOUGHT.

SAY, busy tenant of the human breast,
Who can controul, or bid thy labour rest?
Who can impede thy soaring active course?
'Tis not in argument or mental force
Thy involuntary wanderings to restrain.
Or raze thy heedless errors from the brain,
Thy ceaseless visions oft the sense entrance;
Thy rapturous fancies our best joys enhance;
Thy glow so sweet, we all our cares forget,
Smile at the past, enjoy the present yet.
When disappointment swells the heart with grief,
How vain thy search in quest of its relief!
Till sober Reason, emanation bright,
Permits a dawn of her unerring light,
Fresh on the mind's deluded maze to gleam,
And bid her sovereign ray securely beam.
Still roving thought breaks Reason's kind controul,
Saddens anew the ready melting soul,

Revives

Revives paſt joys, then dwells on ſorrows o'er,
And counts life drear and taſteleſs evermore.
Thus too appears the varied hour of day,
When bright in luſtre ſhines the ſunny ray;
But ſoon withdrawn, the lively hues it ſhed,
Seems like the friendly hope for ever fled;
To ſome an early viſit it repays;
Other forſakes for many lengthen'd days,
Nay years perhaps denied its ſoothing aid,
And with their griefs all fond expectance laid;
But Virtue, kind renewer of our peace,
When ſhe ſits paramount, deſpair muſt ceaſe.
Its cancerous venom with her arm can quell,
And cauſe freſh hope more permanent to dwell.
To ſpeak the commerce of the will with thought,
To ſay how eaſy fancy may be wrought,
Why we can act conceptions of the mind,
Or where thoſe apt propenſities we find;
How vain the queſtion; ſearch the world around,
Find the moſt learn'd of wiſdom moſt profound,
His knowledge is confin'd; he can but ſee
We to ourſelves are contrariety.
Thought wavers now, e'en now the fancy flies,
Connexion vaniſhes, the ſubject dies.

A. C.

To DREAMS. A SONNET.

By MARY JULIA YOUNG.

HAIL, gentle ſpirits! who with magic wing
Chaſe the dark clouds of ſullen night away,
And from her murky cave my freed ſoul bring,
To revel in the radiant beams of day!

What are you, ſay? or earthly or divine,
Who thus can cheer the pauſe of dull repoſe?
With chemic art the droſs of ſleep refine,
And beauteous ſcenes to curtain'd eyes diſcloſe!

What are you, who, ſubduing time and ſpace,
To bleſs theſe moments can a friend reſtore!
I hear that voice—behold that form—that face,
And grateful own, your power can give no more.

Hail, gentle ſpirits! to whoſe guardian care
I owe ſuch bliſs—yet know not what you are.

IMPROMPTU.

By M. VOLTAIRE *.

VOUS fiers Anglois, & barbares que vous êtes,
Coupez la tête à vos rois & la queue à vos bêtes;
Mais nous François, plus polis, & aimant les loix,
Laiſſons la queue à nos bêtes & la tête à nos rois.

TRANSLATION.

Ye Engliſh brutes, to barbarous cuſtoms bred,
Cut off your horſes' tail and monarch's head.
The French more rev'rence and compaſſion ſhow,
Spare their king's head, and let their horſe-tails grow.

S. M.

PROLOGUE to EMILIA GALOTTI.

Spoken by Mr. WHITFIELD.

TO the dramatic genius of our iſle
And you, its patrons, we devote this pile,
High as our hopes we pitch th' aſpiring plan,
And wide as your munificence the ſpan;
Not that our humble ſcenes this night demand
The ſplendid poliſh of the painter's hand;
Nature can hold her converſe with the ſoul,
Tho' the proud metaphor forbears to roll;
'Tis to reflect your graces on the ſight,
Not for ourſelves we keep our mirror bright.
The venerable fathers of our ſtage
Walk'd in the gloom of a benighted age,

* M. Voltaire paſſing through Cheſea, ſaw the operation of docking a horſe, and immediately wrote the above, with the ſpirit, indeed, of the *poet*, but not of the *prophet*.

Nature

Nature they had to reach the loftieſt part,
But there was wanting Nature's handmaid, art;
Mean was the plank that Shakſpeare's buſkin trod,
A ſtraw built temple held the drama's god;
So vaſt his ſcope, ſo quick his fancy wrought,
That apprehenſion wou'd not catch his thought:
No glimm'ring twilight warn'd the clouds away,
Flaming he roſe, and pour'd the flood of day;
The dazzled world look'd up to him aghaſt,
E're they regained their ſight the flaſh was paſt.
But now ſhou'd this eventful time inſpire
A ſecond Shakſpeare with a *muſe of fire*,
Our Theatre will be prepared to yield
His future Agincourt an ampler field;
And here, perhaps, in this illuſtrious round
The heroes of that drama may be found:
Here too the unconſcious bard, that ſhall rehearſe
Their glorious triumphs in immortal verſe,
And he ſhall come—for where can poet find
Themes to provoke ſuch energy of mind;
Horrors ſo deep, diſaſters, feuds, and fears,
And deeds, which told, ſhall drown his ſtage with tears:
The incidents are ready to his hands,
Diction is all his tragedy demands.
Amid the nation's wreck kind fate has giv'n
One proof that man is yet the care of heav'n,
One ſpot of earth, by partial favour bleſt,
On which the wearied dove of Peace may reſt;
Snatch'd from the general deluge, we embark
The family of Muſes in our ark:
So when reviving Nature ſprings a-new,
Genius ſhall owe its ſecond birth to you.

EPILOGUE to the Same.

Spoken by Mrs. SIDDONS.

WRETCHED the ſtate, and fatal is the hour,
When headſtrong paſſion nerves the arm of power.
Choak but the ſource whence Virtue's ſtreams ſhou'd flow,
The current ſtops, and all is foul below.
He, then, thrives beſt who beſt can fawn and cozen,
And up ſtart Marinellis by the dozen:
Up ſtarts (to manly Engliſhmen unknown)
The titled pander to the lawleſs throne.
Bleſt England! long may virtue's ſilken band
Unite the rul'd and ruler of thy land.
Be it thy boaſt to doubt, or doubt to boaſt,
If rul'd or ruler love each other moſt!
To boaſt, no factious art, no force, can wring
A virtuous people from a virtuous king!
Galottis here no ſcepter'd vice can dread,
No foul invader of the nuptial bed.
Can he diſturb the ſubject's wedded life,
Whoſe mark'd example bids him love his wife!
Is he to ruin others' children prone,
Who has ſo many children of his own?
Can the fond father well his truſt diſcharge,
And not protect his family at large?
Oh, no!—the nation's welfare is his plan,
Whoſe private worth ſhines through the public man.
Bleſt England! caſt thine eye acroſs the flood,
Where wild confuſion marks its way in blood;
Where ſpeculation anarchy maintains,
And philoſophic murders drench the plains;
While Gallia's ſons beneath ſuch horrors groan,
Lament their ſtate, and glory in your own.

MARIAN's COMPLAINT.

By PETER PINDAR.

SINCE Truth has left the ſhepherd's tongue,
Adieu the cheerful pipe and ſong!
Adieu the dance at cloſing day,
And ah! the happy morn of May!

How oft he told me I was fair,
And wove the garland for my hair!
How oft for Marian cull'd the bow'r,
And fill'd my lap with ev'ry flow'r.

No more his gifts of guile I'll wear,
But from my brow the chaplet tear;
The crook he gave in pieces break,
And rend his ribbons from my neck.

How oft he vow'd a conſtant flame,
And carv'd on ev'ry oak my name!
Bluſh, Colin, that the wounded tree
Is all that will remember me.

THE THEATRE.

ON Tuesday, October 28, was performed, at the theatre royal in Drury-lane, a new tragedy, called EMILIA GALOTTI. The following are the characters: Duke of Guastalla, Mr. Kemble; marquis Marinelli, Mr. Palmer; Camillo Roto, Mr. Aickin; Galotti, Mr. Wroughton; Battista, Mr. Barrymore; Guiseppe, Mr. Caulfield; Angelo, Mr. Phillimore; Perio, Mr. Maddocks:—Countess Orsina, Mrs. Siddons; Claudia, Mrs. Powell; Emilia, Miss Miller.

This tragedy is from the German of Lessing, founded on the well-known story of Appius and Virginia. Its general character is to substitute refinement of sentiment for the strong workings of passion, and delicacy of expression for the nervous utterance of untutored feelings, a style of dramatic writing more calculated to interest in the close, than to agitate on the stage. The catastrophe is too tame for the taste of an English audience. It was brought out with great splendour of decoration; the dresses and scenery the most beautiful, perhaps, that ever appeared upon any stage.

On Thursday, Oct. 30, a new operatical drama, under the title of ARRIVED at PORTSMOUTH, was performed at the theatre royal in Covent-garden. It is the production of Mr. Pearce, author of Hartford Bridge, Netley Abbey, and other pieces.

The characters are, Wildfire, Mr. Quick; captain Pendant, Mr. Johnstone; captain Tropic, Mr. Bowden; Magnet, Mr. Incledon; Piccaroon, Mr. Munden; Ferret, Mr. Fawcett; major Drummond, Mr. Townshend; ensign Somers, Mr. Clermont; Landlord, Mr. Davenport; Mat, Mr. Rock; Waiter, Mr. Burton; Louisa Bowers, Mrs. Mountain; Fanny Pendant, Miss Hopkins; Mrs. Ferret, Mrs. Henley.

The scene is laid at Portsmouth, and the author's purpose is to celebrate the glorious event of the 1st of June. In a drama of this kind we do not look for plot; loyalty atones for the want of it. There were two comic characters admirably drawn, though not novel, Piccaroon and Ferret, and they produced a good deal of mirth. For the rest, the characters were common, but the music was charming. Mr. Shield has composed some truly beautiful airs, in which there is a rich invention, and polished taste.

The following is a specimen of the Songs:

SONG—Mr. BOWDEN.

O bring me wine, bright source of mirth!
For from the favoured lips
Of him who joyous sips,
The jest, the taunt, the song has birth.
Wine o'er the soul sheds influence kind,
And gives a summer to the mind!

When rosy wine is seen to flow,
The goblin Care takes flight!
Just so a fiend of night
Departs at morn's celestial glow.
Wine o'er, &c.

There's magic lodged within the grape;
It makes the lover view
His nymph with beauties new;
Gives softness to her air, her shape!
Wine o'er, &c.

SONG—Mr. INCLEDON.

Tho' seldom I that form can view,
No rival's claims can mine subdue:
His passions will not bear a test
With the true homage of this breast.

If he who feels the tropic sun,
Retires to shades, its warmth to shun;
The dweller on the polar shores
Ne'er sees it shine, but he adores.

On Saturday, Nov. 1, a new farce, called The WEDDING DAY, was performed at Drury-lane theatre. The principal feature of the piece is the unexpected return of lady Constance, the wife of sir Adam, after fifteen years absence, and on the very day that her husband, supposing her dead, had taken to himself a younger bride!—The reluctance of the old knight to part with the *second wife*, whose *tender years* would expose her to so much danger; and to receive the *first*, 'whose *age* would be its own protection,' is very whimsically pourtrayed. The *vis comica* of Mr. King and Mrs. Jordan, in the principal characters, was irresistible. The piece is from the pen of Mrs. Inchbald.

On Monday, Nov. 17, was performed, for the first time, (after the tragedy of the Fair Penitent) a new grand pantomimic spectacle, in two parts, called Hercules and Omphale. It commences with a view of the palace of Omphale, queen of Lydia, who is seated on a throne, surrounded by virgins. The princes of

Dacia and Mycœne ſend ambaſſadors, each demanding her hand in marriage. This introduces the magnificent entry of the two princes, which being over, a Pyrrhic dance takes place, and thunder is heard. Jove's eagle deſcends, bearing a feſtoon with this inſcription, 'Hercules is doomed the ſlave of Omphale.' Hercules enters, clothed in the hide of the Numean Lion, attended by Iolaus. He offers preſents to Omphale, who receives them with tenderneſs. The princes renew their ſuit, which ſhe rejects, after which Omphale, Hercules, and the princes, retire at ſeparate entrances. Omphale, in the abſence of Hercules, orders her nymphs to prepare for the chace. This is ſucceeded by the Cave of Cacus (a famous robber, with three heads) who had deſolated the country, and who hearing the ſound of horns, lies in wait for his prey. The rival princes are ſeen paſſing through the trees. Omphale and her train return from the chace. The princes retire, and plan to ſeize her. Cacus enters, and forces her into the cave. The princes, and their attendants, attempt to ſeize Hercules, who defends himſelf, for ſome time, againſt their united force. Nearly vanquiſhed, he prays to Jupiter, when a ſtorm ariſes: thunder, lightning, hail, fire, and maſſy ſtones, are ſeen to deſcend. Hercules gains the mouth of the cavern, and thus defends himſelf againſt the ſtorm and his aſſailants. Screams are heard within the cavern. The prince of Dacia bearing off Omphale, the prince of Mycœne forces her from him, and, after killing the Dacian prince, eſcapes with his conqueſt. The tempeſt ceaſes. Hercules and Cacus come from the cave: a combat enſues, in which Hercules vanquiſhes the robber. He then purſues the prince of Mycœne, and is informed by Iolaus, that Omphale is ſhut up in the city of Mycœne. The ſcene then changes into a view of the town and fortifications of Mycœne, which is beſieged by Hercules, who recovers Omphale. The ſecond part, which likewiſe contains a variety of beautiful ſcenery, terminates with the temple of Juno, in which Juno, attended by Mercury and Hymen, joins the hands of Hercules and Omphale, and orders Hymen to prepare the marriage ceremony. The whole concludes with a grand hymeneal proceſſion, in which are introduced four beautiful white bulls (real bulls) two of them prepared for ſacrifice, and two drawing the altar.

This ballet (the moſt magnificent exhibited on the Engliſh ſtage, for many years) was compoſed by Mr. Byrn; the muſic partly new by Mr. Shield, and partly ſelected from Haydn, Gluck, &c. and the overture (for a double orcheſtra) by Mr. Reeve.

STATE TRIALS.

ON Tueſday, October 28, came on, at the Old Bailey, before lord preſident Eyre, and the other judges under the ſpecial commiſſion, the trial of Mr. Thomas Hardy, late ſecretary to the London Correſponding Society, on a charge of high treaſon. The names of the jury were as follows:

THOMAS BUCK, eſq. Back lane Acton.
THOMAS WOOD, eſq. coal-merchant, Ealing.
WILLIAM FRASER, eſq. Queen's-ſquare, Bloomſbury.
ADAM STEINMITZ, eſq. biſcuit-baker, Limehouſe.
NEWELL CONNER, eſq. diſtiller, Shadwell.
JOHN MARSHALL, eſq. brewer, Shoreditch.
THOMAS SAYER, eſq. diſtiller, Bow.
RICHARD CARTER, eſq. Paddington-ſtreet.
NATHANIEL STONARD, eſq. brewer, Bromley.
JOSEPH NICOL, eſq. farmer, Willſdon.
JOHN CHARRINGTON, eſq.
JOSEPH AINSLIE, eſq. coal merchant, St. George's in the Eaſt.

Mr. Wood opened the pleadings. He ſtated, that this was an indictment which had been preferred againſt Thomas Hardy, the priſoner at the bar, for maliciouſly and traitorouſly conſpiring, with John Horne Tooke, &c. to ſtir, move, and excite inſurrection, rebellion, and war againſt our ſovereign lord the king, within this kingdom, and to ſubvert and alter the legiſlature, rule, and government, now duly and happily eſtabliſhed in this kingdom; and to depoſe our ſaid lord the king from the royal ſtate, title, power, and government of this kingdom; and to bring and put our ſaid lord the king to death.

The firſt overt act to perfect and bring to effect their moſt evil and wicked treaſon, which he ſtated, was their procuring a convention and meeting of divers ſubjects of our ſaid lord the king to be aſſembled and held within this kingdom, with intent and in order that the perſons to be aſſembled at ſuch convention and meeting

ing ſhould and might, wickedly and traitorouſly, without and in defiance of the authority, and againſt the will of the parliament of this kingdom, ſubvert and alter, and cauſe to be ſubverted and altered, the legiſlature, rule, and government, now duly and happily eſtabliſhed in this kingdom; and depoſe, and cauſe to be depoſed, our ſaid lord the king, from the royal ſtate, title, power, and government thereof. Mr. Wood alſo ſtated eight other overt acts of this ſpecies of high treaſon.

When Mr. Wood had finiſhed, ſir John Scott, the attorney general, in a ſpeech of nine hours, went into a very full and minute detail of the ſubject of theſe proſecutions for high treaſon.—The counſel for the proſecution then proceeded to produce their evidence, which conſiſted of papers that had been found in the cuſtody of different perſons, and ſeized, under the warrant of the privy council.

Previous to the court's breaking up, about 12 o'clock, a converſation of ſome length enſued, reſpecting the gentlemen of the jury, who wiſhed to be diſcharged on their honor; to which Mr. Erſkine on behalf of the priſoner conſented, but the court were of opinion, that the law would by no means permit the jury to ſeparate after having been once impannelled. The gentlemen of the jury were therefore conſigned to the care of the ſheriffs, by whom certain preparations for their accommodation in the ſeſſions-houſe had been previouſly made. And, the next day, the jury having complained, that their accommodations in the ſeſſions-houſe were uncomfortable, and utterly incapable of affording them the neceſſary reſt, they were provided that evening, and all the ſubſequent evenings of the trial, with beds at the Hummums in Covent-garden.

The 29th, 30th, and 31ſt of October were employed in the production of evidence for the crown, both documentary and oral; which latter took up great part of the morning of Nov. 1. This being finiſhed, Mr. Erſkine, in behalf of the priſoner, addreſſed the jury for the ſpace of ſix hours. The remainder of the day was occupied in the examination of the witneſſes for the priſoner; many of whom gave him an excellent character, ſtating, moreover, that he was a quiet inoffenſive man; and that his object, in connecting himſelf with theſe ſocieties, was merely to procure a parliamentary reform, by all peaceable and lawful means, and, on no account whatever by a ſubverſion of the conſtitution. The court adjourned, at half paſt 12 on Sunday morning, till the Monday following, when the counſel for the priſoner proceeded with their evidence; after which Mr. Gibbs likewiſe addreſſed the court in his favour. He was followed by the ſolicitor general in reply. The next day (Nov. 4) the ſolicitor-general concluded his reply, and the lord preſident commenced the ſumming up of the evidence. The next day (Nov. 5.) his lordſhip reſumed the ſumming up, which he finiſhed about 12 o'clock. The jury then retired, and after having been abſent two hours and a half, returned, and delivered their verdict—NOT GUILTY. The court then adjourned to Monday the 11th of November.

A trial, on a charge of high treaſon, thus laſting nine days, is a circumſtance unexampled in the hiſtory of the criminal law of England.—No account of this important trial has been yet publiſhed *by authority*. The proceedings, indeed, are voluminous to an extreme, and will make, we underſtand, no leſs than 1600 cloſely printed pages, in octavo.

On Monday, Nov. 17, the Court again met, and proceeded on the trial of John Horne Tooke, eſq. on the ſame charge of high treaſon. The names of the jury were as follows;

JAMES HAYGARTH, eſq. Sonthampton-place, New-road, foreman.
THOMAS HARRISON, Gray's-inn lane, cow-keeper.
EDWARD HALE, Highgate, gent.
THOMAS DRAINE, Limehouſe, brewer.
EDWARD WHITING, Stepney cauſeway, ſugar-refiner.
NORRISON COVERDALE, Limehouſe, rope-maker,
ROBERT MAIRIS, Holborn, gent.
JOHN COOK, eſq. Great Ormond-ſtreet.
CHARLES PRATT, Tottenham, miller.
MATHIAS DUPONT, Enfield, gent.
WILLIAM HARWOOD, Hanwell.
HENRY BULLOCK, Whitechapel, brewer.

Mr Tooke, at his requeſt, on account of indiſpoſition, was indulged by the court with ſetting at the table, near his counſel.

Mr. Percival having opened the proceedings, the ſolicitor-general went on to ſtate the caſe, in the ſame manner as had been done by the attorney-general, on the trial of Mr. Hardy. The evidence for the crown was then produced, the exami-

nation of which took up till the third day of the trial, Nov. 19.—On that day Mr. Erſkine addreſſed the jury in favour of the priſoner. The fourth day, the witneſſes for the priſoner were called. Theſe chiefly conſiſted of gentlemen who had been engaged in former attempts to procure a parliamentary reform, and ſome of whom had actually attended as delegates from certain diſtricts. They were, as ſucceſſively examined—Major Cartwright, Mr. Fox, Mr. Francis, the duke of Richmond, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Sheridan, earl Stanhope, the rev. Mr. Wyvill, col. Macnamara, counſellor Fielding, lord Frederic Campbell, lord Derby, Mr. Beaufoy, Mr. Simmons, col. Money, Mr. Maxwell, capt. Harwood counſellor Rous, and the biſhop of Glouceſter. The principal part of this evidence went to prove that Mr. Tooke was a zealous friend to the monarchial and ariſtocratical, as well as to the democratical part of our conſtitution; that he was a friend to a parliamentary reform on the moderate plan of Mr. Pitt; namely, by a gradual extinction of the rotten boroughs as they could be purchaſed, and adding to the county members; and that he was an enemy to the plan of annual parliaments, and univerſal ſuffrage, which had been firſt ſuggeſted by the duke of Richmond and afterward adopted by the Britiſh convention at Edinburgh, and by other ſocieties in England.—On Friday Nov. 20 (the fifth day) Mr. Gibbs alſo ſpoke for the priſoner; the attorney general replied; and the lord preſident commenced the ſumming up. This his lordſhip reſumed the next day, and finiſhed about eight in the evening, when the jury retired, and, in ſeventeen minutes, returned with their verdict—NOT GUILTY.—The court then adjourned to Monday December 1.

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE,

Continued from Page 304.

NOTWITHSTANDING the panegyric which Barère pronounced in the convention, on the 14th of September, in favour of the popular ſocieties, it ſoon became evident, that the jacobin club, once ſo powerful, would ſuffer a conſiderable diminution of influence and authority. Addreſſes, from different parts, were preſented, incontеſtibly proving, that a great majority of the departments had begun to entertain the ſame ſentiments as the people of Paris, with reſpect to the jacobins. The opinions of the Pariſians, indeed, were openly declared by ſeveral ſatirical pamphlets, daily publiſhed againſt that ſociety. One of theſe, under the title of 'The Unmaſked Jacobins,' was ſold by a woman, on the 19th of September, before the very gates of the ſociety. A citizen arreſted her, and conducted her before the committee of public welfare, which not only diſcharged and indemnified her for the loſs of time, cauſed by her informer, but alſo ſent the latter to priſon.

During the trial of the 94 inhabitants of Nantes, who have been acquitted by the revolutionary tribunal, atrocities have come to light, at the bare mention of which, humanity ſhudders. Eight hundred unfortunate victims were drowned at once near Nantes, and one thouſand, among whom were a number of children, were ſhot to death. Their property was confiſcated, and divided among the aſſaſſins.

On the 7th of October, in a letter from Lyons, Imbert invited the convention to tear off the veil with which intriguers were endeavouring to blind the eyes of the people. Attempts, ſaid he, are making, to propagate the doctrine, that the popular ſocieties are the people; that the will of theſe ſocieties is the will of the people; and that to puniſh or purify the popular ſocieties, that were corrupted or miſled, is to infringe upon the rights of the people. The convention, he truſted, would fruſtrate theſe perfidious attempts, and maintain the dignity of its character.—Honourable mention was ordered to be made of this letter, and that it be inſerted in the bulletin.

On the motion of Merlin of Thionville, Cambaceres read the following plan of an addreſs from the convention to the French people:

'Diſtruſt thoſe perfidious men, who, under falſe pretences, would conduct you, through anarchy, to a counter revolution: They are the heirs to the crimes of Robeſpierre, and of all the conſpirators whom the revolution has engendered and puniſhed. They call themſelves the friends of the people, and with only to butcher them. They effect to vindicate the rights of the

people

people, which they wish to destroy. The nation has already seen itself on the brink of the abyss. The evil taught it the remedy: it exclaimed, 'Long live the convention!' The wicked were reduced to their original nothing, and our country was saved. The same will again be the case; the people and the convention will be for ever united; and all the scaffoldings of our enemies will fall at our feet. Restored to your energy, you will suffer no individual to impose upon your reason; you will not forget that the guarantee of liberty is in the force of the people, and their union with the national convention. The convention, steady in its course, will maintain the revolutionary government, but maintain it by making it regular, and by clearing it from the cruel and iniquitous measures of which it has been made the pretext. The convention will maintain the revolutionary government till the entire destruction of the enemies of the revolution, in spite of the hypocrisy of those who call for the constitutional government with perfidious intentions. We will continue at our post till the revolution shall be entirely consummated. We will spare error and punish guilt. We will establish the reign of severe justice, but not such justice as they preach up; not such justice as they exhibited to the people, issuing from dungeons and reeking with blood. Shun those who talk incessantly of blood and the scaffold; who, after enriching themselves with the spoils of the revolution, seek for impunity in anarchy and confusion. Search out, on the contrary, those modest men who court not public employments, but practise the republican virtues without ostentation?'

This address was adopted with unanimous applause, ordered to be printed, and sent to all the armies, communes, and popular societies of the republic.

Merlin, of Thionville, announced that the committee of general safety had taken into custody Giot, of Bayonne, who had dared to maintain, in the jacobin club of Paris, that the convention had no right to purify the popular societies.

Cavagnac said, Giot was a well known intriguer.

Bourdon of Oise said the information received by the police, convinced the committee of general safety, that private meetings dangerous to liberty were held in different parts of Paris. He particularly denounced the club that met formerly at the electoral hall, and now in the section of the museum. He affirmed, that in this club, the means were last night debated of dissolving the convention, which, it was said, had been deputed by the people, only to bring the tyrant to trial and frame a constitution; and, both these objects being accomplished, its mission was at an end. In addition to the address just voted, he proposed the following decree:—

1. The national convention declares, that, being the depositary of the sovereignty of the people, it will not permit the least infringement of that sovereignty, on any pretext, even on that of the right of petition.

2. It decrees, that there is no ground for deliberating on petitions presented to obtain leave for the sections to set every fifth day, nor on those tending to demand, that the municipality be organised in Paris.

3. All those who, in the night between the 9th and 10th Thermidor (27th July) attempted to mislead, and excite the people against the convention, shall be treated as suspected persons.

4. Those who, by their actions or their writings, shall impede the progress of the government or the representatives of the people on mission, shall be treated as suspected persons.

Tallien rose next: 'These propositions,' said he, 'are too intimately connected with the national interest to be adopted without mature examination. We all agree that these are men whose object is to annihilate the public spirit, and destroy the national convention. These are the projects of Pitt and Cobourg, which are prosecuted here in a direct manner. We all disapprove of the crafty motions of those foreign emissaries, of those men who would kindle civil war in France. But those now denounced are not the only persons on whom the severity of the law and the wisdom of the convention ought to fall. They ought to fall upon all alike. All who dare to raise a power to rival the government ought to be punished. One Giot has been denounced to you, but you are not clearly told in what place he dared to deny the right of the convention to purify the popular societies. What! shall not the convention have a right to tell a society, 'have you not accomplices of Robespierre among you? Who are those men who maintain an obstinate silence, and are actually at the head of the committees of your society, whose intriguers insist upon reading speeches in preference to reports of the convention?' (applauded)—Let the convention hold the reins

reins of government with a ſteady hand, purſue intriguers and agitators, and not ſuffer men who have conſtantly bowed the knee to the idol of the day, to inſult the patriots. I have never been for aboliſhing the popular ſocieties; but to be uſeful they muſt be purified. They muſt not ſave as leaders to thoſe who aim at eſtabliſhing their own power by deceiving the people. It is time for all honeſt men to look on each other as brothers; for thoſe who with ſincerity for liberty and equality to unite againſt the men who wiſh to perpetuate their own domination by diſcord and anarchy. Calls of diſtinction have been talked of; falſe, wicked and ambitious men are of no particular caſt. Guilt muſt be perſecuted wherever it appears, and virtue cheriſhed among every claſs of men. The good and the uſeful citizens are the laborious artiſan, the ſoldier who defends the republic, and the ſeaman who braves the ocean in the ſervice of his country. The bad citizens, are thoſe who wiſh to live by idleneſs and rapine: thoſe who range themſelves around particular leaders, around ambitious and intriguing men, to aſſiſt in their crimes and participate in their plunder.' —He concluded with moving that Bourdon's propoſitions ſhould be referred to the three committees.

'At the ſitting of October the 10th, the capture of Cologne, Aix la-Chapelle, Juliers, and Bois-le-Duc, was announced to the convention. The reporter, ſpeaking of the capture of Cologne, ſaid, 'In Cologne, we have found a numerous artillery, immenſe magazines, and the beſt furniſhed arſenal in Europe. The enemy has been obliged to repaſs the Rhine, and to abandon to us places the moſt favourable to our winter-quarters. What paſſed on our entrance into Cologne is a clear proof of the horror in which the people every where hold deſpotiſm. The inhabitants preſſed upon us as we marched along with the moſt unequivocal tokens of joy and admiration. They ſeem to think, that in having within their walls an army renowned for ſo many ſucceſſes, they become, in ſome ſort, the ſharers of its glory.'

The next day, a deputation from the department of Paris made a long ſpeech at the bar, to aſſure the convention of its adheſion to the revolutionary, but, at the ſame time, moderate principles, which it had inculcated in its addreſs to the people; and to proteſt that all the members of the department are ready to die in the defence of them. The deputation was admitted to the honour of the ſitting, and to that of accompanying the retinue of J. J. Rouſſeau to the pantheon.

The revolutionary tribunal came to make a ſimilar profeſſion of faith, and received the ſame honours; as alſo the criminal tribunal, and that of ceſſation.

A ſecretary read an addreſs from the repreſentatives of the people at Marſeilles, which announces that all the citizens of that city abhor the traitors who had miſled them; that they have all ſworn in the *Temple of Reaſon*, and in the popular ſociety, to rally round the convention, and the republic one and indiviſible.

The citizens belonging to the national inſtitution of muſic, entered the hall; they performed ſeveral pieces compoſed by Jean Jacques Rouſſeau; after which, the aſſembly went to celebrate the feſtival eſtabliſhed in honour of this new *demi-god*.

At the ſitting of October 12, the ſection *le Pelletier* came to ſwear death to the tyrants, cheats, ariſtocrats, and bloodthirſty men, who demand the return of terror. It ſwore obedience to the law, reſpect and gratitude to the convention. It called for the watching over of the preſent compoſition of ſectional committees, which are full of intriguers and ariſtocrats; demanded the frequent change of thoſe who compoſe them; and concluded by teſtifying its adherence to the principles contained in the addreſs to the people publiſhed by the convention. This declaration was followed by applauſes, and inſerted in the bulletin.

A deputy from the company of the cannoniers of the ſection of the friends of the country, employed for nine months in making war againſt the *Chouans*,* teſtified its regret at not being able to announce the entire deſtruction of them, and declared its approbation of the addreſs to the people.—At the ſitting of the 13th of October, the ſeventy-one deputies detained in the houſe of arreſt of Port Libre, for the writing which they ſigned at the time of the revolution of May 31, 1793, addreſſed the convention, deſiring that they might at length be tried.—The convention decreed, that the three united committees occupy themſelves with the affair of the ſeventy-one impriſoned deputies; a report to be made to the aſſembly; that the act which occaſioned their arreſt ſhall be printed and

* One of the names given to the royaliſts of La Vendée, from the name of one of leaders.

diſtri-

diſtributed; and that the decree ſhall be extended to ſuch of the deputies as are impriſoned in their own houſes.

On the 14th of October, the ſociety of defenders of the republic, one and indiviſible, ſitting at the *ci-devant* jacobins, came to unite its voice with that of the ſections, conſtituted authorities, tribunals, &c. to render homage to the addreſs of the convention to the people, to congratulate it on the deſtruction of the ſyſtem of terror, and the reſtoration of the reign of juſtice. It added that, in taking the name of *Defenders of the Republic, one and indiviſible*, it aimed at co-operating in enlightening the people's opinion on its rights and duties; in contributing to the triumph of liberty—the defence of oppreſſed patriots—and the denunciation to the national juſtice, of the traitors, cheats, intriguers, and dilapidators of the public fortune.—Honourable mention and inſertion in the *bulletin*.

The 15th of October was the important day when the convention, by reducing the power of the jacobins, and other popular ſocieties, within the requiſite limits, afforded to the lovers of peace, order, and humanity, the poſſible extinction of anarchy and reſtoration of government. On that day, Delmas, in the name of the three committees, preſented a report on the popular ſocieties. As this report was expected, the galleries and the hall of the convention were remarkably crowded. All the poſts were double guarded, and ſtrong patroles paraded the ſtreets.

Delmas began, by applauding the principles on which popular ſocieties were eſtabliſhed, and the ſervices which theſe ſocieties had rendered to the cauſe of liberty. He then proceeded to point out the dangers which might ariſe, if vigorous means were not adopted to prevent them from becoming the inſtruments of intriguing and ambitious men.

He inſtanced, as examples of this danger, the events of the 9th Thermidor; he dwelt with great energy on the influence which theſe ſocieties inſenſibly acquired in the government—an influence which in the French republic had lately ariſen to ſuch a height, that no important meaſure could be adopted without their aid and concurrence. The revolutionary government, he ſaid, ought to be without a rival; and if the popular ſocieties were ſuffered to take ſuch an active part in the government, the revolutionary principle would be conſtantly either oppoſed or checked in its operation.

The means by which the ſocieties had arrived at this plenitude of power, were by correſpondence and communication. By means of this double tie, they formed an immenſe corporation, powerfully influencing the opinion and the action of the government. It has, therefore, become neceſſary to apply a ſtrong remedy to this evil. The committees, therefore, propoſed the following decree:

The national convention, after having heard the united committees of public ſafety, general ſecurity, and legiſlation, decrees:

I. All affiliations, aggregations, federations, as well as all correſpondences, in a collective name between ſocieties, under whatever denomination they may exiſt, are prohibited, as ſubverſive of the government, and contrary to the unity of the republic.

II. No petitions or addreſſes can be made in a collective name. They ought to be individually ſigned.

III. The conſtituted authorities are prohibited from forming reſolutions on addreſſes or petitions made in a collective name.

IV. Thoſe who, as preſidents or ſecretaries, ſhall ſign addreſſes or petitions made in a collective name, ſhall be apprehended and impriſoned as ſuſpected perſons.

V. Immediately after the publication of the preſent decree, each ſociety ſhall make out a liſt of all the members of which it is compoſed. This liſt ſhall contain the names and ſurnames of the members, their age, the place of their birth, their profeſſions and reſidences before and ſince the 14th of July, 1789, and the date of their admiſſion into the ſociety.

VI. A copy of this liſt ſhall be addreſſed, within two decades of the date of this decree, to the national agent of the diſtrict.

VII. Another copy ſhall at the ſame time be tranſmitted to the national agent of the commune in which the ſociety is eſtabliſhed. It ſhall be poſted up in the place in which the municipality holds its ſitting.

VIII. In Paris it ſhall be poſted up in the hall of the committee of adminiſtrative police.

IX. This plan ſhall be followed every third month. And,

X. All who ſhall contravene any diſpoſition of this decree, ſhall be apprehended, and impriſoned as ſuſpected perſons.

Thibaudeau, Duhem, Legeune, Craſſous, and Dubarron oppoſed the decree, on the

principle that the convention had no right to prevent men from aſſembling and correſponding with each other.

Reubel, Bentabole, Bourdon of Oiſe, Thuriot, and many other members, ſpoke in favour of the decree. Thoſe who oppoſed the decree, they ſaid, proceeded on the ſuppoſition that the ſocieties were to be deſtroyed; but this was not the caſe. The convention only meant to prevent the ſocieties from being injurious to the republic. The propoſal of the three committees was decreed amidſt the loudeſt plaudits.

[To be continued.]

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTES.

From the London Gazette, November 8.
Horſe Guards, November 8.

BY diſpatches this morning received from his royal highneſs the duke of York, dated Arnheim, 28th of October and 1ſt and 4th of November, 1794, it appears that the enemy, on the 27th ult. made an attack on the Britiſh out poſts in front of Nimeguen, which were driven in; a new poſition was in conſequence taken up oppoſite to the left of the town, againſt which a heavy fire has ſince been kept up by the French, who, the ſame evening, attacked the out poſts of fort St. André, which fell back to the fort. Lieutenant-general Abercrombie and lieutenant-colonel ſir William Clarke, were ſlightly wounded in this ſkirmiſh; and captain Picton, of the 12th regiment, was alſo wounded, in a ſally made from Nimeguen on the morning of the 28th. On the 1ſt of November the enemy broke ground, but it does not appear that they have ſince made any conſiderable progreſs in the ſiege. The ſame diſpatches mention that Venlo ſurrendered on the 28th. The garriſon is allowed to march out with the honours of war and ten pieces of cannon; and it is not reſtrained from ſerving again. Coblentz has been in the poſſeſſion of the French ſince the 21ſt ult.

Horſe Guards, Nov. 8. By a diſpatch which has been received from major-general Williamſon, dated Jamaica, the 1ſt of September, 1794, it appears, that the perſons to whom the defence of the poſt of Petite Riviere, in the iſland of St. Domingo, had been entruſted by general la Vaux, commander in chief of the troops of the convention in that iſland, made an offer to lieutenant colonel Briſbane, commanding his majeſty's forces at St. Mare, to place the poſt of the Petite Riviere, with the pariſh of that name, and the adjacent plain of Artinobere, under his majeſty's authority. This offer was accepted by lieutenant-colonel Briſbane, and a capitulation to this effect was ſigned on the 19th of Auguſt, 1794. The terms of this capitulation, and the means by which it was effectuated, were concerted with M. le Villanuova, commanding the forces of his catholic majeſty in that part of the iſland, who appears, on this occaſion, and in the execution of ſome military operations which had previouſly taken place, to have co-operated in the moſt cordial and friendly manner with his majeſty's forces.

Horſe Guards, Nov, 15. A diſpatch, of which the following is a copy, has been received from his royal highneſs the duke of York by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Head-quarters at Arnheim,
SIR, November 7, 1794.

On Tueſday afternoon, as the enemy had began to conſtruct the batteries, count Walmoden made a ſortie, with a party of the troops, in Nimeguen, conſiſting of the 8th, 27th, 28th, 55th, 63d, and 78th regiments of Britiſh infantry, under the command of major-general de Burgh, and two battalions of Dutch, ſupported by the 7th and 15th Britiſh light dragoons, one ſquadron of the 2d regiment of Hanoverian horſe, one ſquadron of the 5th regiment of Hanoverian dragoons, one ſquadron of the 10th Hanoverian light dragoons, and the legion de Damas, in the Dutch ſervice.

This ſortie had every ſucceſs which could be expected from it. The troops advanced to the enemy's trenches under a very ſevere fire, and jumped into them without returning a ſhot.

The loſs of the enemy was almoſt entirely by the bayonet, and amounted to above 500 men; that of the Britiſh and Hanoverians will be ſeen by the enclоſed return.

I am perſuaded that the gallantry of the troops upon this occaſion will merit his majeſty's approbation.

Count

Count Walmoden speaks in the highest terms of the conduct of major-general de Burgh, whose wound, I am happy to find, is very slight.

This sortie had the effect of checking the enemy's operations till yesterday morning, when they opened two batteries upon the bridge and one upon the town. The effect of the former, which very easily sunk one of the boats, determined me to withdraw every thing from the troops posted in the town, beyond what is barely necessary for its defence; and lieutenant Popham, of the navy, having repaired the damage done to the bridge, all the artillery of the reserve, with the British, Hanoverian, and Hessian battalions, marched out last night, without any inconvenience, leaving pickets, under the command of major-general de Burgh, to the amount of 2500 men; which, with the Dutch forces, has been judged sufficient to maintain the place till the certainty of the Austrian movements can be determined. I am, sir, your's,

FREDERICK.

[Here follows the return of the killed, wounded, and missing, in the sortie from Nimeguen, under the command of the hon. major-general de Burgh, on the 4th of November, 1794; amounting in the whole to 22 rank and file, 5 horses, killed; 1 field officer, five captains, 6 subalterns, 10 serjeants, 149 rank and file, 14 horses, wounded; 1 serjeant, 19 rank and file missing.]

Officers Wounded.

8th Foot, captain Bland; 27th foot, lieutenant Baker; 55th foot, captains Bruce and Quin; 63d foot, lieuten[ant] Wemyss, Barclay, and Rutledge; 7[9th] foot, major Malcolm, captains M'Ke[nzie] and H. Munro, lieutenant Bayley, and ensign Cameron.

[Then follows the return of the killed and wounded of the German troops, amounting in the whole to 1 captain, 1 subaltern, 1 serjeant, 5 rank and file killed, 4 rank and file, 22 horses wounded.]

Officers Killed and Wounded.

Horse Guards, captain count Oynhausen, killed; prince of Wales', lieutenant Niemeyer, killed; Horse Guards, captain de Maydel and de Schenk, wounded.

Horse Guards, Nov. 22. A dispatch, of which the following is an extract, dated Arnheim, the 11th of November, 1794, has been received from his royal highness the duke of York by the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state:

'The evacuation of Nimeguen took place on Friday night. His majesty's troops retired without any loss; which would also have been the case with the Dutch, but for an unfortunate chance shot, which carried away the top of the mast of the flying bridge to which the hawser was made fast, consequently the bridge swung round, and they were taken prisoners, to the amount of about 400. The bridge of boats was entirely burnt; and the flying bridge, of which they got possession by the above accident, has been since destroyed by our fire.'

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

POLAND.

Hamburg, October 10.

BY accounts from Berlin we learn, that the Poles attacked the Prussian troops under colonels Szekuli and Henrichs at Bromberg, and entirely defeated and dispersed them; that the action was very bloody; that the Poles shewed a great deal of military skill and valour. Among the slain on the Prussian side is said to be both the colonels above named.

Letters from Thorn of the 9th inst. state, that colonel Szekuli is since dead of his wounds at Bromberg, and that the Polish general Madalinski ordered him to be interred with all military honours. The Poles seized immense magazines both at Fordan and Bromberg; they respect private property, but seize all the effects belonging to the king of Prussia.

Berlin, Oct. 23. The Russians, on the 10th inst. gained an important victory over the Poles, of which the following are the particulars: the plan of the Polish general was to prevent the junction of the two corps under generals Suwarrow and Fersen, which he meant to do by means of an advantageous position in the neighbourhood of the castle of Madzievice, about 12 miles from Warsaw. General Fersen proposed to counteract the plan of the Polish general by giving him battle on the 12th. Unluckily a Russian officer, who had instructions to that effect in his pocket-book, was made prisoner by the

Poles, as he was reconnoitring. As ſoon as general Ferſen knew this, he reſolved to make his attack two days ſooner. The Poles being very advantageouſly poſted on the heights, drove the Ruſſians back twice, and defended themſelves with ſuch bravery that they would no doubt ultimately have had the advantage, had they not been ſeduced to leave the heights, in order to purſue the enemy. The Ruſſians then formed again, and made their third attack with ſuch reſolution, that, notwithſtanding a moſt deſperate defence on the part of the Poles, they (having loſt the advantageous ſituation) were entirely defeated. The Poliſh infantry ſuffered very much, and general Koſciuſko, receiving a ſtroke of a ſabre in the nape of his neck, fell from his horſe, and was made priſoner. The cavalry did not ſuffer ſo much, and chiefly got away. Prince Poniatowſky, who was left with the main army, as ſoon as he heard of the defeat of the commander in chief, fell back upon Warſaw, and poſted himſelf on that ſide of the city moſt open to attack, and with his army of near 16,000 men, ſupported by the inhabitants of Warſaw, will make the capture of that city more difficult than was at firſt imagined; nor can the cauſe of Poland be in ſo deſperate a ſituation as many imagine, when it is conſidered that the generals Madalinſky, Dombrowſky, and others, are yet at the head of ſtrong corps of troops, and all Poland in arms.

Thorn, Oct. 18. In conſequence of the defeat of general Koſciuſko, the Poliſh general Madalinſki has been obliged to evacuate Weſt Pruſſia. He is now ſurrounded, and the courier who recalled him has been taken priſoner by the Pruſſians. The arrival of the Ruſſians before Warſaw is daily expected. Prince Gallitzin has put 8000 Ruſſians into Georgenburg.

Leyden, Nov. 6. Some letters from Thorn ſpeak in doubt of general Koſciuſko's being made priſoner in the action of the 10th. They ſay that the Poles, after the battle, retreated to Bromberg, and from many accounts it appears that the defeat was not attended with all the important circumſtances which were at firſt announced. The Pruſſian general Ferſen did certainly write a letter to the king of Poland, announcing the total defeat of the Poliſh army, and the taking of ſeveral general and other officers, and among the reſt the commander in chief, priſoners, and exhorting his majeſty to co-operate in the re-eſtabliſhment of the former ſtate of affairs in his country, to releaſe the Pruſſian priſoners and the members of the corps diplomatique arreſted at Warſaw; to which the king anſwered, 'That the taking of the commander in chief is not to be looked upon as deciſive, and could not induce him to give up the revolution, to which he had pledged himſelf by oath, and would remain faithful to the principles of it; that as to the releaſe of the priſoners he could only agree to that in the way of exchange.'

The Empire.

Ratiſbon, Oct. 22. The third campaign againſt the French being on the point of concluding, the Germanic diet have finally reſolved to furniſh quintuple contingencies for the defence of the empire, which was agreed to in form on the 14th, and in terms highly complimentary to the emperor for the great exertions he has made, and the paternal attention with which he watches over the welfare of the empire.

In deliberating upon the point of the quintuple contingencies on the 6th, there was, in the aſſembly of the princes, but one negative voice, and that was Swediſh Pomerania; 23 miniſters, or voters, had not yet received their inſtructions; all the reſt agreed unanimouſly to the propoſal under different reſtrictions. The Palatinate miniſter propoſed to ſet about obtaining an honorable peace. The elector of Mentz took the opportunity of the opening made by the court of Munich to ſupport it, and to communicate it on the 20th, as arch-chancellor of the empire, to the diet, and moſt ſtrongly to recommend the endeavouring to negociate a peace during the enſuing winter, through the mediation of the neutral courts of Sweden and Denmark.

As ſoon as the above propoſal was made, the miniſters of Treves, Cologne, Palatine-Bavaria, and Brandenburg, immediately concurred in the ſame without reſerve, as did moſt of the college of princes; and it was almoſt unanimouſly agreed to negociate a truce, in order to obtain a peace, during the winter.

Frankfort, Oct. 24. We have juſt received accounts that Coblentz ſurrendered to the French yeſterday, after a violent cannonading.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

NOVEMBER 1.

A Letter from Cork, dated Oct. 23, has the melancholy intelligence, that, on the preceding Saturday, a diſpute aroſe between John Auguſtus Croſbie, eſq. one of the candidates for the county of Kerry, and ſir Barry Denny. It was agreed that they ſhould go out the next day, and decide the matter. They accordingly met on Sunday at three o'clock in the afternoon, and immediately took their ground: they fired together. Mr. Croſbie's ball entered ſir Barry's head over the left eye, which killed him almoſt inſtantly. Mr. Croſbie was attended to the ground by capt. Godfrey, and ſir Barry Denny by the knight of Kerry. This melancholy event makes a ſecond vacancy for that county.

NOVEMBER 7.

Yeſterday morning, the admiralty ſeſſions commenced at the ſeſſions-houſe in the Old Bailey, when the trials of John Owens, John Dixon, and —— Cudgo, a negro, came on. They were charged with the murder of John Mellegen, mate of the Lovely Laſs, on the 3d of December 1792, on the coaſt of Anamego, by throwing him overboard, and firing at him afterwards. They were acquitted in failure of evidence, the moſt material witneſs being dead. Charles Crook, for the murder of the mate of the Warren Haſtings, at Bengal, was alſo acquitted.

NOVEMBER 8.

This day the right hon. Thomas Skinner, eſq. lord-mayor elect, alderman of Queenhithe-ward, took poſſeſſion, at Guildhall, on the huſtings, with the uſual form, of the civick chair.

Portſmouth, Nov. 10. His majeſty's ſhip the Canada, capt. Hamilton, is this moment arrived; and brings the unpleaſant news, that being with the Alexander, of 74 guns, capt. Bligh (lately promoted to the rank of admiral) on their return from ſeeing a convoy to a certain latitude, they fell in with five ſail of French ſhips of the line, on Thurſday laſt; and, owing to the Alexander being a heavy ſailer, ſhe was unfortunately captured.

NOVEMBER 11.

A fever has carried off a great number of the French priſoners confined in Forton priſon within theſe laſt few weeks. In September no fewer than 200 died, in the laſt month nearly as many; but it is gradually abating.

NOVEMBER 12.

Yeſterday, lord Kenyon ſat at niſi prius at Guildhall. The only actions tried, of importance to the public, were, Engliſh v. Mountain, and Brooke v. Copland. The former was for damage ſuſtained by the plaintiff's ſon, by the breaking down of the defendant's ſtage coach; and as it was proved that there was a greater number of outſide paſſengers on it than is allowed by law, the jury gave the plaintiff a verdict for 53l. the ſums claimed for expences.

The laſt was an action brought by Brooke againſt the defendant Copland, for having been ſhockingly bit by the defendant's dog.—Plaintiff nonſuited.

A reprieve of another month has been ſent to David Downie, at Edinburgh.

NOVEMBER 13.

This morning an officer arrived at the Admiralty-office with diſpatches from admiral Coſby, with the agreeable news of the arrival at Portſmouth of his majeſty's ſhip the Alcide, adm. Coſby, with the reſt of the ſquadron, having under their convoy a fleet of merchantmen from the Mediterranean.

This day advice was received at Lloyd's of the ſafe arrival off Portland of all the merchantmen from Quebec, with their convoy all well.

NOVEMBER 15.

On Wedneſday, fourteen priſoners were tried at the Old-Bailey, three of whom were capitally convicted, viz. Thomas Booth, for burglariouſly entering the dwelling-houſe of Eſther Carr, with intent to commit felony therein; George Grover and Charles Porter, for aſſaulting Jacob Crowder on the highway, and feloniouſly taking from his perſon four guineas and a half, fourteen ſhillings and a ſilver watch. Six were convicted of felony, and five were acquitted. Among the convicts for felony was the following curious caſe.

Eliſabeth Serres was indicted for robbing her ready-furniſhed lodgings. The proſecutrix ſwore to the priſoner's having taken a lodging in her houſe, which ſhe plundered the firſt opportunity. The priſoner in her defence ſaid, that ſhe had a twin ſiſter, ſo like her, that their parents could not diſtinguiſh them aſunder. This was confirmed by Mr. Kirby, who ſaid, the ſiſter was in cuſtody for a ſimilar offence; he had ſeen her, and they were ſo alike, that it was impoſſible to perceive any difference. Under this ſingular di-

...ma the jury acquitted the prisoner. ...he was a second time indicted for a simi... offence. The prosecutrix in this case, ...as positive as to her identity. This arose ... her having seen the sister, who in or... to deceive her, changed cloaths with ...r; but still she pointed her out. She ...lso distinguished their voices, and a de... of hastiness to the sister beyond the ...risoner.—*Guilty.*

On Thursday, seventeen prisoners were ...ed, ten of whom were convicted of fe..., among whom was John Taylor, in... for bigamy, of which the follow... is the evidence: William Beal knew ...e prisoner was married in May 1771 to ... Marshal, at Baldock, in Herts; ... was present at the marriage; saw the ...e on the 19th of September last. Ro... Barnley was present on the prisoner's ...arriage to Sarah Marshal in 1771: he ...w her about ten days ago. Mary Sophia ...chardson was married to the prisoner the ...th of May 1791, at St. Bride's, Lon...: she knew of his marriage to a for... wife, and that she was still living: ... was forced to this prosecution much ...inst her inclination: she lives in the ...ated amity, at this moment, with the ...soner's former wife: she knew this pro...ution is instituted to impeach his credi... as a witness, as he was subpœnaed ...a witness on the state trials. John ...ce, clerk to Mr. Martin, produced ... registers of the two marriages. John ...ls saw the defendant married to Mary ...phia Richardson, on the 30th of May ...91. He heard that a prior marriage ex...d, and told Miss Richardson of it: she ...d, 'Mr. Taylor had a right to marry ... much as any single man, and he had ...nvinced her of it.'—Guilty.

The prisoner in the above case had been ... evidence against Watt and Downie, ...d was to be produced in the state trials ...w. The object of the present prose...ion appeared to be, to get rid of his ...timony by a conviction.

Yesterday, 13 prisoners were tried, three ...f whom were convicted of misdemeanors, ...z. Richard Barrow and Robert Watson, ...r having in their custody and possession ...wers false, scandalous, and seditious print... libels, with intent to publish the same ...mong the liege subjects of our lord the ...g, and thereby to excite sedition and ...bellion in this kingdom: they received ...entence to be imprisoned in Newgate two ...rs, and at the end of that time to find ...reties for their good behaviour for three ...rs more, themselves in 100l. each, and ...their sureties in 50 l. each.—Richard Jackson, alias Bradley, alias Williams, for passing counterfeit coin, knowing it to be so, against the statute, was ordered to be imprisoned in Newgate one year, and to find securities.—Eight were convicted of felony, and two were acquitted.

The same day the sessions ended, when John Wadsworth, alias George Hopwood, William Clinch, John Tomlinson, Thomas Booth, Charles Porter, and George Grover, received judgment of death; one was ordered to be transported beyond the seas for the term of fourteen years, fourteen for the term of seven years, eight to be imprisoned in Newgate, seven in the house of correction at Clerkenwell, two to be publicly whipped, and twenty-eight discharged.

The sessions was then adjourned until Monday next at seven o'clock, when John Horne Tooke, esq. was to be put on his trial for high treason. *See* page 379.

Yesterday, an infamous procuress, of King's Place, stood in the pillory in Pall-mall, from twelve till one in the afternoon, pursuant to her sentence, for keeping a disorderly house in that place, for which she was laudably prosecuted by the church-wardens and overseers of the parish of St. James's. She met her punishment with all the impudent assurance of an incorrigible offender. Her dress was loose, and extremely indecent; and she had taken care to muffle up her face previous to stretching forth her neck to the instrument of punishment: the executioner, however, soon removed every obstacle which could hide her from the indignant spectators, who severely pelted her with mud, rotten eggs, &c.—The hour being expired, she descended from the pillory; we are sorry to say, not in the least impressed with a sense of shame or contrition, and amid the loudest hisses of the people who had collected on the occasion.

Dublin, Nov. 11. Yesterday morning Crosby Morgell, esq. representative in parliament for the borough of Tralee, was discovered drowned near the first wharf at the south wall. His hat and umbrella were purposely placed together on the wharf, in such a manner as to preserve them from the incurrent tide. The body was entirely lifeless when brought on shore; of course every attempt to revive it was in vain. He was father-in-law to the late sir Barry Denny, who lost his life a few days ago in a duel.

Plymouth, Nov. 13. Last night, about eight o'clock, a dreadful accident happened at

at the house of Mr. Cragg, gentleman farmer, near Buckland, about four miles hence: he had purchased some hundred weight of damaged powder, which he had placed in a room over the kitchen: unfortunately, several pounds being put in a bag near a fire to dry, were taken up and placed on a table, when a candle falling on the bag of powder, it blew up, and communicated to the powder above, and, shocking to relate, destroyed with a violent explosion the inside of the house. Mrs. Cragg was blown out of the window on fire, and was taken up in flames by a person passing by, who plunged her in a pond in the court-yard; but she is so dreadfully burnt, it is thought she cannot recover. Mr. Cragg was also much hurt. Seven servants and apprentices had their arms and legs broke, two of whom most likely will not survive. Fortunately Mr. Cragg's daughter, fourteen years old, escaped unhurt on the first explosion.

NOVEMBER 19.

This day, a proclamation was issued to prorogue the parliament, which was summoned to meet on the 25th inst. to the 30th day of December next; which was in the evening forwarded to the members of parliament absent in the country; in order that they might receive the earliest intimation of it.

NOVEMBER 20.

Mr. David Dale, of Lanark in Scotland, in the course of six years has reared a village on the banks of the Clyde, containing 2000 persons; and has erected five cotton mills, each containing 6000 spindles; and ten schoolmasters are daily employed in the tuition of the children.

NOVEMBER 21.

Yesterday died, at his house in Store-street, Bedford-square, Mr. Baddeley, comedian, of Drury-lane theatre. He was seized with a fit in his dressing-room at the theatre on Wednesday evening, as he was dressing for the character of *Moses*, in the *School for Scandal*, and was taken home, and expired between twelve and one o'clock in the morning.

NOVEMBER 24.

Yesterday evening lord Hood arrived at his house in the admiralty from Portsmouth, at which port he arrived on Friday in the Victory, of 100 guns, from the Mediterranean, where he has given up the command of the British squadron.

Downing-street, Nov. 19. This day a treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, between his majesty and the united states of America was signed by the right hon. lord Grenville, his majesty's principal secretary of state for foreign affairs, being duly authorised for that purpose on his majesty's part, and the hon. John Jay, envoy extraordinary from the united states of America, having a like authority on the part of the said states.—*London Gazette.*

Downing-street, Nov. 22. His majesty having been pleased, by commission under the great seal of Great Britain, to appoint the right honourable James lord Malmesbury, baron of Malmesbury in the county of Wilts, one of the lords of his majesty's most honourable order of the Bath, to negociate, conclude, and sign a treaty of marriage between his royal highness the prince of Wales and the princess Caroline Amelia Elisabeth, daughter to the most illustrious highness the duke of Brunswick and Lunenburgh, his lordship will immediately proceed to Brunswick to execute the said commission.—*Ib.*

Lord Chamberlain's Office, Nov. 20. Notice is hereby given, that the public entry of the Turkish Ambassador, which was to have taken place at St. James' on the 27th instant, is postponed till further orders.—*Ib.*

Saturday Mr. Heslop, the messenger, was dispatched with letters to lord Malmesbury at Brunswick. Major Eyre accompanied the messenger, with the picture of his royal highness the prince of Wales for the princess of Wales elect.

BIRTH.

CONsort of prince Lewis, second son of the king of Prussia, a son, named Frederick William Lewis.

MARRIAGES.

SIR Montagu Burgoyne, bart. to miss Burton.

Sir Archibald Dunbar, bart. to miss H. P. Cumming, daughter of colonel Cumming.

Edward Loveden Loveden, esq. M. P. for Abingdon, to miss Lintall, daughter of Thomas Lintall, esq.

Charles Grey, esq. M. P. for Northumberland, to miss Ponsonby, daughter of the right hon. William Brabazon Ponsonby, M. P. for Kilkenny.

DEATHS.

HON. Mr. Curzon, son of lord Scarsdale.

Lord Daer, son of the earl of Selkirk.

Elisabeth dowager baroness Colville of Culross.

Major-general Robert Johnston.

Lady

Lady of ſir William Dick, bart.

Mary Wortley Montague Stuart, counteſs dowager of Bute, in her own right baroneſs Mountſtuart.

Major-general Allan Campbell.

Lady of ſir John Frederick, bart. M. P. for Surry.

PROMOTIONS.

CAptains Charles Holmes Everitt Calmady, John Bourmaiſter, ſir George Young, knt. John Henry, and Richard Rodney Bligh—rear admirals of the blue.

Sir Morton Eden, K. B.—a privy-counſellor.

Major-general Adam Williamſon—a knight of the Bath.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

OCTOBER 28.

WIlliam Simpſon, late of Gibraltar, merchant.

John Teaſdale, of Lime-ſtreet, broker.

Joſeph Bennett, of Leiceſter, woolcomber.

Joſeph Buxam and Francis Broom, of Briſtol, tallow-chandlers.

James Biſhop, of Worceſter, hatter.

William Bienden, of Clifton, in Glouceſterſhire, carpenter.

Timothy Whitehead, of Halifax, in Yorkſhire, liquor-merchant.

John Currant, of Storrington, Suſſex, miller.

NOVEMBER 1.

Charles Brinſden, of Marlborough, in Wiltſhire, ſadler.

Thomas Thompſon, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, broker.

Edward Barker, of Brownlow-ſtreet, St. Giles' in the Fields, coach-maker.

Richard Kitchen, of Great Queen-ſtreet, Lincoln's-inn-fields, coachmaker.

Edmund Warne, of Tottenham-court-road, builder.

NOVEMBER 4.

William Clack, of North-ſtreet, City-road, carpenter.

John Farrell, of New Bond-ſtreet, milliner.

William Pollett, of Bow, Middleſex, brewer.

Robert Sanderſon, and Abraham Sanderſon, of Ratcliffe-croſs, coal-merchants.

Alexander Harriſon, of Erdington, near Birmingham, ſeedſman.

Thomas Oldham, of Manchester, money ſcrivener.

NOVEMBER 8.

Daniel Bunning, of Shepherd's-market, Hanover-ſquare, carpenter.

Thomas Boſwell, of Woodbridge, in Suffolk, innholder.

Robert Heckle, of Liverpool, joiner.

Henry Beavis, of Exeter, merchant.

John Roberts, of Kennington-lane, in Surry, baker.

Blakey Tillotſon, of Flaſby, in Yorkſhire, woollen-manufacturer.

James Deer, of Hammerſmith, wheelwright.

Henry Bulcock, of Rochdale, in Lancaſhire, worſted-manufacturer.

George Pickerſgill, Robert Ellis, and Matthew Lodge, of Clement's-lane, London, merchants.

NOVEMBER 11.

Thomas Gladhill, of Bartholomew-lane, mercer.

Thomas Salt, of Batterton, in Staffordſhire, merchant.

Briton Saliſbury, of Weſtbury, in Wiltſhire, carpenter.

Benjamin Lara, of Kennington-green, Surry, ſurgeon.

NOVEMBER 15.

Abraham Vianna, of Bethnal-green, merchant.

John Dyer, of Upper Tyſoe, in Warwickſhire, cow-jobber.

John Jackſon, of Hales Owen, in Salop, mercer.

Willam Naſh, of Newgate-ſtreet, ſhopkeeper.

William Gerard, of Salford, in Lancaſhire, cotton-ſpinner.

John Court, of Bath, ironmonger.

Thomas Goode, of Pelham-ſtreet, Spital-fields, ſilk-handkerchief-printer.

NOVEMBER 18.

Thomas Newland, of Cheapſide, grocer.

Thomas Griffith Vaughan, of Briſtol, merchant.

Hugh Kenrick, of Stourbridge, in Worceſterſhire, mercer.

Ebenezer Aldred, of Wakefield, in Yorkſhire, manufacturer.

Matthew Hawkins, of Manchester, houſe-builder.

Obadiah Weſtwood, of Birmingham, coffin-furniture-maker.

William Dewy de la Touche, of Baſingſtoke, in Hants, dealer.

Thomas Palmer, of Wallingford, in Berks, barge-maſter.

Samuel Southgate, of Chich-ſaint Oſith, in Eſſex, maltſter.

William Pendred, of Oundle, in Northamptonſhire, baker.

Thomas Flower, of Buckhurſt-hill, in Eſſex, dealer in corn.

Nov.

NOVEMBER 22.

George Scott, of Hatton-garden, builder.

George Fairbone, of King-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, ironmonger.

William George Jones, of Coleman-ſtreet, ſtationer.

Samuel Scarlet, of Newcaſtle-under-Lyne, upholſterer.

John Brierley, of Manchester, innkeeper.

James Welſh, of Portſea, in Southampton, linen-draper.

John Lea Hayley, of Wolverhampton, in Staffordſhire, linen-draper.

James Sly, of Birmingham, victualler.

Richard Walker, of Reading, in Berks, horſekeeper.

George Taylor, of Stoke Newington, linen-draper.

Thomas Thornton, of Spalding, in Lincoln, ſhopkeeper.

Thom Martin, of Smithfield, mercer.

James Atwell, of Coppice-row, Clerkenwell, coal-merchant.

Mary Sutherland, of Iſleworth, haberdaſher.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

LOSHIEL's Hiſtory of the Moravian Miſſions, 8vo. 10s.

Adventures of T. Twigg, eſq. 2 vol. ſmall 8vo. 9s.

Tribbiter's Key to the French Revolution, 8vo. 3s. 6d. ſewed.

Townley's Six Sermons before the Lord Mayor, 3s. boards.

Schmeiſſer's Syſtem of Mineralogy, vol. 1, 8vo. 5s. boards.

Giſborne's Inquiry into the Duties of Men in the higher and middle Claſſes of Society, 4to. 1l. 5s.

Hunter's Treatiſe on the Blood, &c. with the Author's Life, by Home, 4to. 2l. 16s.

Watt's Declaration and Confeſſion the Evening before his Execution, 1s.

Hawtry's Appeal to the New Teſtament, in Proof of the Divinity of the Son of God, 2s. 6d.

Impey's Modern Pleader, 8vo. 8s.

Letters on Emigration, 2s.

Moiſes' Inquiry into the Abuſes of the Medical Department of the Militia, 2s. 6d.

Bancroft's Philoſophy of Permanent Colours, 8vo. 8s.

Wintle's Sermons, at Bampton's Lecture, 8vo. 6s.

Myſtic Cottagers, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Hiſtory of the Campaign of 1794, 3s.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN.

November 15, 1794.

By the Standard Winchester Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	55	6	36	0	34	9	25	1
Surry	53	0	37	0	35	4	25	8
Hertford	51	3	37	3	34	11	23	1
Bedford	48	3	33	8	31	3	21	6
Huntingdon	48	5	—	—	30	6	19	10
Northampton	50	0	37	0	31	9	21	10
Rutland	53	6	34	0	34	0	23	0
Leiceſter	55	8	—	—	36	8	24	5
Nottingham	57	8	42	0	39	10	24	10
Derby	58	4	—	—	40	6	25	6
Stafford	57	11	—	—	39	4	24	10
Salop	55	1	42	4	38	7	23	11
Hereford	56	9	44	10	37	5	24	9
Worceſter	59	1	—	—	39	5	29	4
Warwick	58	3	—	—	40	0	26	5
Wilts	52	2	—	—	35	2	25	10
Berks	53	5	—	—	33	5	25	10
Oxford	53	4	—	—	34	6	25	8
Bucks	50	8	—	—	31	10	24	0
Brecon	60	0	48	0	35	2	19	2
Montgomery	50	10	39	4	30	5	19	0
Radnor	53	11	—	—	33	0	21	11

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	52	6	33	0	35	2	25	8
Kent	51	6	34	6	30	3	23	5
Suſſex	50	8	—	—	32	6	24	6
Suffolk	53	0	33	6	33	2	23	4
Cambridge	46	10	33	1	28	8	18	2
Norfolk	48	10	29	0	29	9	22	0
Lincoln	51	1	41	0	33	9	21	3
York	49	3	37	10	32	1	20	1
Durham	48	9	—	—	30	3	19	11
Northumberland	43	2	37	0	27	3	18	8
Cumberland	52	5	40	0	29	8	19	3
Weſtmorland	54	6	40	0	28	10	19	9
Lancaſter	51	9	—	—	38	2	21	0
Cheſter	50	9	—	—	30	4	21	9
Flint	57	7	—	—	41	7	—	—
Denbigh	56	1	40	0	38	6	19	0
Angleſea	50	0	—	—	32	0	14	0
Carnarvon	51	8	41	0	32	4	16	10
Merioneth	58	8	47	3	36	0	15	4
Cardigan	49	1	34	8	25	10	14	0
Pembroke	44	2	—	—	28	6	—	—
Carmarthen	50	9	—	—	27	11	13	4
Glamorgan	56	10	—	—	30	8	18	2
Glouceſter	55	1	—	—	36	0	24	11
Somerſet	56	9	—	—	35	5	20	8
Monmouth	61	1	—	—	38	4	—	—
Devon	59	8	—	—	30	10	18	10
Cornwall	53	10	—	—	28	9	18	5
Dorſet	51	11	—	—	30	9	24	6
Hants	52	2	—	—	33	10	24	4

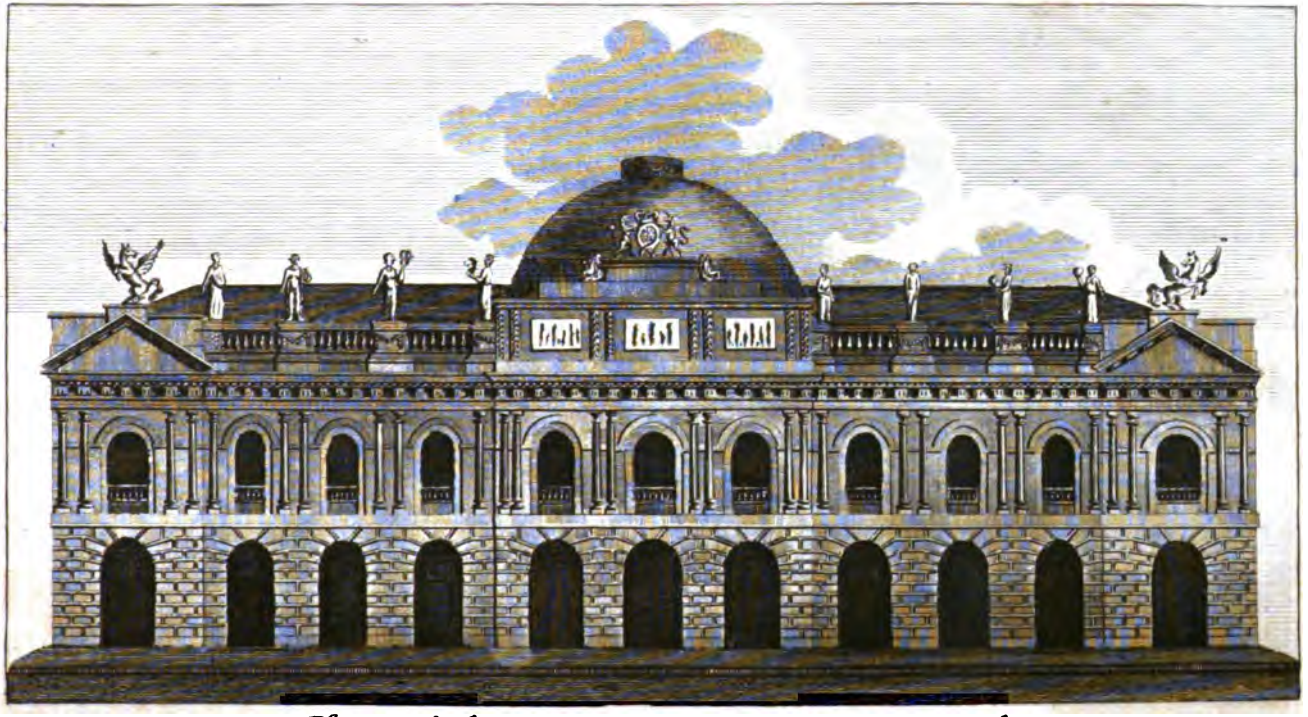
Peck Loaf, 2s. 7d.

PRICES of STOCKS, from OCTOBER 29, to NOVEMBER 26, 1794, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann. shut.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot. Tic.
29	156 ¼	66 ¼	66¼a67	82 ¼	101 ⅞	19 ⅛	9	192					1⅞dif.	19 18 6
30	158 ¼	67 ¼	67¼a68¼	83 ¼	103 ⅛	20 ⅛	9 ⅛	194 ¼	16s.pr.				2	
31	156 ¼	66 ¼	67¼a66⅜	83 ¼	102 ⅜	19 ¼	9	190 ¼	15		66 ¼		1 ⅛	
1	155 ⅞		66¼a⅜	83 ¼				191	16				1 ¼	19 19 0
3	155 ⅞		66¼a⅜	83 ⅜	101 ⅞	19 ⅛	9	191					1 ¼	
4	155		66 a¼	83 ⅜					16	70 ¼			1 ⅛	20 0 6
5														
6	155 ¼	66 ¼	66¼a⅜	83 ⅜	102	19	8 ⅜	190 ¼	15				1 ¼	20 0 0
7		66 ¼	66¼a⅜	83 ⅜	102 ¼	19 ¼	8 ⅜	190 ¼	14	70 ¼			1 ¼	19 19 6
8		66 ¼	66⅜a⅞	83 ⅜	102 ¼	19 ⅛		191	16				1 ⅛	
10														
11	157 ¼	67 ⅜	67¼a67	84 ¼	103 ⅛	19	9	193 ¼	15	71 ¼		67 ⅛	1 ¼	20 1 0
12	156 ¼	67	67¼a66⅞	83 ⅜	102 ¼	19	9	192	16				1	20 6 0
13	155 ¼	66 ⅜	66 a66⅛	83 ⅜	101 ⅞	19	9	190 ¾	16				1	
14	155	65 ⅞	66¼a65⅞	83	102	19	9	190	16	69 ¼			1	20 5 0
15		66 ⅛	66¼a⅛	83	102	19	8 ⅞	190 ¼	16				1	
17	155 ⅛	66	66⅜a⅛	83 ⅛	102 ¼	19	8		15				1	20 9 0
18	155 ⅛	66 ¼	66¼a⅜	83 ⅛	102 ¼	19	9	191 ¼	15				2	20 8 0
19	156	67	66¼a68¼	84 ¼	102 ¼	19	9	192	15				1	20 8 6
20	158 ¼	68 ⅛	67¼a68¼	84 ¼	103 ¼	20	9	194 ¼	15				1	20 10 0
21	159 ¼	68 ¼	69a68¼	84 ¼	103	20	9	194	16	73	68 ¼		1	20 10 6
22		68 ¼	68a68¼	84 ¼	103 ¼	19 ⅞	9	194	17				1	
24	159 ¼	68 ¼	68¼68	84 ¼	103 ¼	20	9	194	16				1	20 9 6
25	158 ¼	68 ¼	68¼a⅜	84 ¼	103 ¼	20	9	194	18				1	20 12 0
26	160 ¼	68 ¼	68¼a69	84 ¼	103 ¼	20	9	195	18				1	

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.



Front of the KING'S THEATRE, *Hay-market*

A Deſcription of the new OPERA HOUSE, *called the* KING'S THEATRE, *in the* Haymarket: *With a geometrical Elevation of that magnificent Structure.*

THE late Opera Houſe, called the King's Theatre, in the Haymarket, was built under the direction of ſir John Vanbrugh, and whatever were its internal beauties, preſented to the ſtreet an execrable brick front. This building was deſtroyed by fire, on the 17th of June 1789; and it is remarkable, that the Pantheon, in Oxford-ſtreet, (the moſt magnificent ſtructure of the kind in Europe) which had been fitted up, in its ſtead, for the performance of operas, met with a ſimilar fate, on the 14th of January 1792. Both theſe ſtructures, however, have been ſince rebuilt.

The new Opera Houſe, or King's Theatre (a geometrical elevation of which is annexed to this account) is the property of Mr. Taylor, and has been erected under the immediate direction of Michael Novoſielſki, eſq.

The baſement conſiſts of a ruſtic arcade. The principal ſtory is of the Doric order, with a pediment of the ſame at each extremity of the building, and a dome of a circular form in the centre; with baluſtrades on each ſide, and piers enriched with fancied feſtpons. Over each pier is an emblematic ſtatue; on the top of each pediment is a Pegaſus; in the centre, the royal arms, on each ſide of which is the figure of an angel; and under theſe are three tablets, ornamented by figures in relievo.

The extreme length of this noble building is one hundred and ſixty-five feet, and its extreme breadth ninety-ſix. The principal entrance is from the Haymarket, into a hall, which opens to an elegant double ſtone ſtaircaſe leading to the boxes, through the antiroom and ſaloon. This ſaloon is twenty feet diameter, of an octagon form, ornamented with eight glaſs pannels, each twenty-two inches wide, and ſix feet long; and elegantly illuminated with wax candles, by means of a large chandelier, depending from the centre of the room, and the effect of which in the pannels of looking-glaſs may be better imagined than deſcribed. Behind this ſaloon is the prince of Wales' ſupper room, elegantly decorated, and warmed by means of a Buzaglio ſtove.

The entrance from Market-lane is for chairs only, and aſcends to the boxes by a circular geometrical ſtone ſtaircaſe, beginning with two branches, five feet ſix inches wide, uniting in one grand landing-place ten feet wide, and ending in ſeven circular ſtone ſteps.

The ſhape of the theatre is a horſe-ſhoe. The ſtage is thirty nine feet broad, and ſixty-four feet deep. The pit contains eighteen rows of ſeats, with a large private box for a party of the nobility or gentry. The orcheſtra contains thirty-ſix of the firſt-rate performers.

The boxes are five rows in height, and one hundred and fifty-one in number. They are lined with crimſon ſattin, and elegantly decorated with carvings of ſpinxes, and other ornaments, richly gilt. On the parapet or front of the boxes are painted groups of arabeſque figures, which produce a rich effect. From the boxes depend gilt branches with elegant chandeliers. Over the boxes are the ſlips, one row on each ſide; behind one of which is a wardrobe for the king and royal family: the other ſide, is intended for a wardrobe for the houſe.

The five-ſhilling gallery conſiſts of twelve rows of ſeats, with a ventilator over it, and iron railing to prevent inconvenience. Under the five-ſhilling gallery, behind the centre of the boxes, is a capacious coffee-room, about ninety feet by twenty, and ſeventeen feet high. The three-ſhil-

ling gallery contains four rows of ſeats.

The height of the theatre, from the centre of the pit to the centre of the ceiling, is about fifty-two feet. Over the ceiling is an extenſive room, with ſkylights, containing ſhops for the ſcene-painters, carpenters, tailors, &c. and depoſitories for the ſcenery, &c.

The whole roof, which is one hundred and ſixty-five feet by ninety-ſix, depends ſolely upon the walls (which are ſix feet in thickneſs) by means of beams keyed and bolted. The riſe of the roof from the ceiling to the ſlate is about thirty-two feet.

This theatre is warmed by means of a ſtove, with ſubterraneous flues, which, after winding under the floor of the lower boxes, empty its ſmoke in a chimney of the hall.

This theatre was ſeven months in building; and the audience, when it was opened, was eſtimated at four thouſand.

One of the nobleſt appendages to this theatre is the Concert Room for Ancient Muſic. This is ninety-five feet by forty-ſix; the height, from the floor to the ceiling, thirty-five feet. It is decorated with fluted Corinthian pilaſters on pedeſtals, with a modillion entablature, from which ſprings a cove, about fourteen feet high in the girt, divided into ſegments of circles, painted with emblematic figures, ornaments, &c. The flat of the ceiling is divided into ovals, painted with celeſtial figures, ſky, &c. In this room are two ſuperb galleries for the king and royal family, with a private door and ſtairs from the Haymarket: the other door opens from the grand entrance. Oppoſite theſe galleries is a magnificent orcheſtra. Between the pilaſters are niches, with emblematic ſtatues on pedeſtals. The whole of the ſides is painted, in a maſterly manner, in chiaro oſcuro. The painters are, for the figures, Mr. Parlotin; for the ornaments, meſſrs. Roſſetti, Filippo, Laporetti, and Vidale.

ON MEMORY.

IN the progreſs of man from infancy to maturity, memory follows the ſenſes, which without it would be uſeleſs. The total loſs of memory ſeems to conſtitute a ſpecies of lunacy. Perhaps all lunacy might be referred to the loſs of memory. The operations of memory are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from all other acts of the mind. What we diſtinctly remember, we believe. When we only imagine a thing, however diſtinctly, no belief follows in a ſound mind. We remember an eclipſe, and we believe that it exiſted. We have often formed a diſtinct imagination of a mountain of diamond, or of a centaur, but we have no belief that ſuch things exiſted.

The belief which we have from memory we call *knowledge*. All our knowledge of paſt events is built upon this foundation. Memory produces a renewal of our acquaintance with the thing remembered, which will be more or leſs intimate, in proportion to the ſtrength of our memory. Memory likewiſe convinces us of our exiſtence and of the duration of time. We cannot remember a thing without being convinced that we muſt have exiſted at the time it happened, and that a certain portion of time has intervened ſince.

Memory is a faculty for which it is impoſſible to account. The knowledge of paſt events we call memory, which is but giving it a name. Why we ſhould remember paſt events is as inexplicable as why we are not able to foretel what is to come. The attempts to explain memory have been abortive. We know that the Creator made us ſo, and we know no more. Memory is an original faculty, and all our original faculties are unaccountable. He only who made them, comprehends fully how they are made, and

and how they produce in us not only a conception, but a firm belief and aſſurance of things which it concerns us to know.

We are very ſenſibly ſtruck with the varieties of memory which we meet with, and with the different ſtrength of our own memory at different times. Some men's memory ſeems to be naturally ſtrong. Thus a man who can remember the principal part of a long ſpeech, is ſaid to have a ſtrong natural memory. The man who *makes* that ſpeech has ſomething of an artificial memory, that is, he has ſtudied his ſubject with great attention, and brings forth all the arguments that can improve, explain, or embelliſh it from the memory of what he has ſtudied. After he has delivered it, he is unable to repeat it, which the hearer of mere natural memory can do, and often in a very perfect manner.

Mere memory, or the faculty of remembering diſtinctly what others ſay, is nowiſe connected with judgment. A man of memory, and a man of judgment liſtening to the ſame harangue, would liſten in a very different manner. The man of judgment would be conſidering the propriety or impropriety of what the orator advanced; the man of memory collects his words only, without entertaining any ſentiment favourable or unfavourable to the ſubject. The latter would remember moſt; the former would remember the tenour only of the ſpeech, ſo as to anſwer, rather than record it.

Memory, like life itſelf, is connected with, and depends upon the ſtate of the brain, but of the nature of that connexion we are wholly ignorant. We know that certain diſeaſes injure the memory, that intoxication almoſt totally deprives men of it. The operation of the latter cauſe is very obſervable. We are apt to ſay, in common language, that intoxication puts men off their guard, that is, it deprives them of the memory of thoſe ſentiments and rules of proper and juſt conduct which influence them at other times. The want of this memory, as has been already obſerved, is a ſpecies of lunacy; as they advance farther, all remembrance of propriety and duty is effaced, yet ſtill they appear to argue in a certain way, but are impreſſed, like madmen, with only one leading idea, which they repeat over and over again, and which, true or falſe, they will not give up. Next day, they retain no remembrance at all of what paſt, and hear with aſtoniſhment that they have ſaid and done things contrary to their natural ſentiments and mode of conduct. Little injury to the memory in general may reſult from an occaſional exceſs of this kind, but a habit of intoxication never fails to bring on a lapſe of memory from which there is rarely a recovery, becauſe the brain becomes injured, and incapable of this as well as other functions.

In children, and in old men, memory is very deficient, but from different cauſes. In children, want of memory ſeems to ariſe from want of underſtanding, which we likewiſe obſerve to be the caſe with illiterate perſons. The want of memory in old men is part of the general decay to which the mind and body are ſubject after a certain age. It is ſingular, however, that old men remember the events of their younger days with great diſtinctneſs, while they find great difficulty in recollecting what happened a very few days or perhaps hours ago. In their relations they are correct by habit, always repeating the ſame ſtory in the ſame way; and when they argue, you may almoſt always know what they are going to ſay. With ſome reaſon have people wiſhed that they may never outlive their faculties. I remember an old gentleman who not only repeated the ſame ſtory twice in the ſame company, but would take up a ſtory not an hour after it had been told by another, and relate it as what had happened to himſelf. To perſuade him that he was wrong, was in vain. Such miſe-

rable beings are we when it pleaſes God to mortify human vanity by depriving us of our memory!

Nothing can be inculcated oftener, and with more propriety, than a ſtrict adherence to truth in our vigorous years. Many examples are there of men who have told a falſe ſtory ſo often, and at ſuch intervals, as at length to believe it themſelves, and even offer to ſwear to the truth of it. They tell it over and over again, magnify the ideas, and their aſſociations; and it makes as vivid an impreſſion upon them, and hangs as cloſely together, as an aſſemblage of paſt facts recollected by memory. Without being very ſuperſtitious, or imbibing the principles of paſt times, when it was ſuppoſed that heaven interfered by its immediate judgments on offenders, we cannot but think that there is in ſuch caſes a puniſhment inflicted well proportioned to the crime, and too obvious not to lead our thoughts to the doctrine of an immediate divine interpoſition with ſome part of the human conduct.

There are few perſons who do not complain, at certain times, of the weakneſs of their memory. This complaint, I apprehend, would be leſs frequent, if we gave our memory its full play, and removed thoſe obſtacles which prevent its operations. Whoever deſires to remember muſt be attentive. Cloſe attention to what we ſee, read, or hear, and that only, can enable us to carry away any part of the ſubject. There are many who fancy that they can attend to more things than one at the ſame time, but experience never fails to teach them the fallacy of this. How much more ſhould we remember of what we hear, or read, if we were to fix our attention upon it, and not allow our minds to wander into conſiderations quite foreign to the ſubject. Why is it that men complain that they cannot remember what they read, but becauſe they read from an improper motive, or while their minds are ſtrongly impreſſed by other things. Books of mere amuſement therefore, are hurtful to the memory, becauſe they do not exerciſe it, and becauſe they put us out of conceit with books of ſcience. Another reaſon why we do not remember ſo much as is poſſible, is, that we are too apt to reſign ourſelves to the operation of the paſſions. Men in anger, in grief, in anxiety, are very incapable of memory, becauſe their faculties are elſewhere engaged.

Juſtly, therefore, has it been ſaid, that memory is little more than the art of attention. Let us only conſider how much we *do* remember, when our intereſt compels us to *attend*, and we may gueſs how much we ſhould always remember by habits of attention. Continual exerciſe is abſolutely neceſſary to the preſervation of this important faculty. Helps, as they are called, for weak memories, muſt no doubt be uſed, where they are wanted; but while our memory poſſeſſes its native vigour, they are injurious, becauſe we truſt too much to them, and contract an inattentive diſpoſition, confiding in theſe artificial *memorandums*. Nor ſhould the memory be clogged with unneceſſary things; ſuch as dates. Many men excel in remembering dates, but they remember nothing elſe, and their judgments are generally weak.

This ſhort eſſay may be concluded with a remark, for which we are indebted to an eminent philoſopher of our day, and which is curious. The Greek and Roman orators, who ſometimes had occaſion to deliver very long orations, and all from memory, took pains to fix in their minds a ſeries of objects or places naturally connected, ſuch as the contiguous houſes in a ſtreet, or the contiguous apartments in a houſe. By long habit, theſe places were ſo arranged in their memory, that when the firſt place occurred to them, it introduced the idea of the ſecond, and the ſecond the third, and ſo forward; even as when the firſt letter of the alphabet, or the begin-

beginning of a well-known tune, occurs to the mind, it introduces the ſubſequent letters and notes in the proper order. Then the orator connected the firſt head of his diſcourſe with the firſt of theſe places, the ſecond with the ſecond, &c. by thinking of both at the ſame time. And thus they were enabled to recollect, without confuſion, all the parts of the longeſt diſcourſe. This was called artificial memory. Cicero and Quintilian both ſpeak of it, but neither of them ſo minutely as to make it perfectly intelligible, at leaſt to me; nor do I know that any modern orator has ever made uſe of it. It ſeems indeed to have been a laborious way of improving memory; as Quintilian himſelf acknowledges. In alluſion to it, we ſtill call the parts of a diſcourſe *places* or *topics*, and ſay, in the firſt place, in the ſecond place, &c.

R.

METHOD *of raiſing* EARLY POTATOES, *hitherto kept ſecret among a few Planters: Communicated to the Surveyor of the County of* Lancaſter, *by Mr.* Blundell, *of* Ormſkirk.

LANCASHIRE was the firſt county in this kingdom in which the potatoe was grown; and as it is able at this day to boaſt a ſuperior cultivation in that important article, in which it ſtill ſtands unrivalled, it may be requiſite to deſcend to particulars in regard to the management of that crop:

1. A ſward, or freſh lay, is deſirable, but not always requiſite. Good crops have been frequently raiſed from lands exhauſted. The ground being previouſly cleaned by ploughings, and plant;d (if the ground can be got into condition in April) in drills about three feet diſtance, and from twelve to nine inches aſunder, in each drill, the ſets * placed immediately upon long dung from the yard, &c. but dung from the great towns produces a wonderful effect upon lands not formerly accuſtomed to that article, and it is ſuppoſed will generally enrich twice as far, with equal effect, as the manure formerly uſed from the farm-yard, &c. This is experienced in the lands bordering upon the canals.

2. Although April be the prime ſeaſon for producing a crop of good potatoes for the table, becauſe this vegetable requires a certain portion of time, to acquire that degree of maturity which renders it peculiarly mellow and farinaceous, yet it is frequently planted as late as May, or even June, and yet produces abundant crops, but not of the ſame matured quality as thoſe planted at a more early ſeaſon.

3. The apprehenſion of froſts (by which, if the tops are caught, after breaking the ſurface, they pine and ſicken, and the hopes of the huſbandman are blaſted) ſometimes operate againſt this early ſeaſon; yet good planters riſque the chance of froſts, in order to obtain ſuperior quality.

4. The crops are kept clean from weeds by the plough, firſt by turning a furrow, left for that purpoſe, toward the young plants, as ſoon as they appear; and then by turning a furrow from each ſide of the drill, and which is ſometimes, if very foul, harrowed by a ſmall triangular harrow, running through each drill. After the

* The ſurveyor has made ſome experiments to aſcertain the beſt mode of cutting the ſets; for, if the potatoes be ſet whole, putrefaction does not alway enſue, and which ſeems advantageous to the following crop; a ſet of a large ſize, to a certain degree, is better than a ſmall one. The beſt method he has yet diſcovered is taking off the ſprout, or noſe end, and the ambilical, or tail end of the potatoe, and having the middle entirely for the ſet; the worſt method of cutting the potatoe appears to him cutting the potatoe down the middle, from noſe to tail end; a practice but too common.

weeds

weeds have been ſo expoſed, the furrow is turned back again, and ſometimes the ſame plough, or a double wriſted one, runs up each drill once more; beſide the deſtruction of weeds, the land, by theſe operations, is looſened, and expoſed to the ſun and air, which contributes greatly to improve the crop.

5. The variety of ſeeds in uſe are numerous—Ox-noble, and the cluſter potatoe, are planted for the cattle *; the pink-eye, and a variety of others, with different kinds of kidney-potatoes for the table. The old winter red, as it is ſometimes called, ought to be mentioned for its peculiar goodneſs in the ſpring, when other kinds have loſt their flavour; this potatoe is then in its beſt perfection; it has another quality, that of never having been known to curl. There are alſo great varieties of early potatoes, and great attention is paid to raiſing new ſorts of the beſt qualities from ſeeds, of what is called the crabs, or ſuckles, which grow upon the ſtems.

6. Great attention is paid to changing the ſeed occaſionally, to prevent the curl †, the practice of obtaining freſh ſeed from Scotland, (as was the cuſtom a few years ago) is not now ſo frequent; a change from the moſs lands, and *vice verſâ*, being generally ſufficient. A change of land is alſo deſirable, but not always practicable: crops have been ſucceſsfully taken, for a ſucceſſion of years, from the ſame lands.

7. The produce of a crop is, on a medium, from two to three hundred meaſures, or buſhels, the ſtatute acre. The early potatoes are generally planted in beds in rows about eight inches diſtant, and the ſets about four or five inches ſeparate, becauſe thoſe early potatoes, being of a leſs ſize, require a ſmaller ſpace; but the advanced price theſe early crops fetch at market, render them a profitable article to the cultivator ‡, who, beſide reaping a profit from this early produce, has his grounds prepared for another crop the ſame ſeaſon. The markets of Mancheſter, Oldham, Rochdale, and the neighbourhood, are ſupplied with great quantities, not only from Warrington, but as far as Rufford, Scariſbrick, &c.

Upon the ſame ground from which a crop has already been taken, the early || ſeed potatoes are in ſome places afterward planted, and which, after being got up about November,

* Of the Cheſter potatoe, the ſurveyor had an opportunity of viewing the produce of a crop, lying upon the ſurface of the ground, after being juſt taken up, belonging to colonel Mordaunt, of Halſail, in Lancaſhire. An intelligent farmer, who accompanied me, confeſſed, and we both agreed, that we never ſaw ſo abundant a crop; and yet, as we were informed, without any dung, from a lay.

The cluſter, or conglomorated, or Suffolk, (for ſo it is called by Mr. Howard, who firſt introduced it to notice) was cultivated in this country twenty-five years ago, from ſets left by that gentleman with the ſociety for the promotion of arts and commerce.

Vide Doſſie's Memoirs, vol. x. It has ſince been produced from ſeed, and, though much improved in ſhape, retains the red colour and ſaccharine taſte.

† By a buſhel of potatoes, is generally meant 90 lb. before they are cleaned.

‡ Mr. Eccleſton took the ſurveyor to view a piece of ground thirty perches, (eight yards to the perch) the early potatoes raiſed upon which had been ſold for thirty pounds, in the year 1793; after which a crop of turnips had been grown, which, at ſixpence per buſhel, were worth fifty pounds per acre; after which the ſame land was to be cropped with wheat.

|| The early potatoe is a diſtinct ſpecies, of which there are yet great varieties.

The buſhel mentioned in Mr. Young's Farmer's Tour is only 48 lb. which accounts for the large number of buſhels, 427, at which he averages the product of an acre.

A ſtatute acre in Walton, laſt year, produced 228 buſhels, of 90 lb. which is exactly Mr. Young's average, or 427 buſhels or 48 lb.

and immediately cut up into ſets, and preſerved in oat ſhells *, or ſaw-duſt, where they remain till March, when they are planted, after having taken off one ſprit, and planted with another of a length ſufficient to appear above ground in the ſpace of a week.

But the moſt approved method is, they cut the ſets, and put them on a room floor, where a ſtrong current of air can be introduced at pleaſure, the ſets laid thinner, viz. about two lays in depth, and covered with the like materials (ſhells or ſaw-duſt) about two inches thick: this ſcreens them from the winter froſts, and keeps them moderately warm, but at the ſame time admits air to ſtrengthen them, and harden their ſhoots, which they improve by opening the doors and windows on every opportunity of mild ſoft weather: they frequently examine them, and when the ſhoots are ſprung an inch and a half, or two inches, they carefully remove one half of their covering, with a wooden rake, or with the hands, taking care not to diſturb or break the ſhoots: in this manner they remain till the planting ſeaſon, giving them all the air poſſible by the doors and windows, when it can be done ſafely from froſt: by this method the ſhoots at top become green, leaves are ſprung, and moderately hardy. They plant then in rows, in the uſual method, by a ſetting-ſtick, and carefully rake up the cavities made by the ſetting-ſtick; by this method they are enabled to bear a little froſt without injury. The earlieſt potatoe is the ſuperfine white kidney; from this ſort, upon the ſame ground, have been raiſed four crops, having ſets from the repoſitory ready to put in as ſoon as the others were taken up; and a fifth crop is ſometimes raiſed from the ſame lands of winter lettuce.

8. The manner of taking them up varies. The three pronged fork is in general uſe—the ſoil turned over, the weeds picked out, the potatoes gathered and ſeparated according to their ſize, by the ſame perſon. Another practice is, for a ſtrong man to take a three pronged fork, but crooked (the ſame which is generally uſed to pull dung out of the cart) which he ſtrikes down between every root, and pulls over, laying the roots bare, which are taken up by two children that follow. Another practice is, to turn a furrow from the potatoes, with a Rotherham plough, and then with another plough, furniſhed only with a ſhare, to turn up the potatoes, which are afterward gathered.

After the potatoes are gathered, and ſufficiently dried, they are put together in heaps, in the ſhape of the roof of a building, covered cloſely with ſtraw, which ſhould be drawn ſtraight, and to meet from each ſide in a point at the top, about ſix inches in thickneſs, and then covered with mould, cloſely compacted together, by frequent applications of the ſpade; after which, Mr. Eccleſton makes holes in the mould, at the ſides and tops of theſe repoſitories, as deep as the ſtraw, and about three yards diſtant, to permit the air, which, he ſays, viſibly ariſes from the fermentation, to eſcape; after the fermentation has ceaſed, the holes are cloſed, to prevent the effects of froſts or rain.

9. The utility of the application of potatoes to feeding ſtock, is ſufficiently known, but not ſufficiently practiſed.—Converting the produce into immediate caſh, by taking it to market, is a ſtronger temptation than waiting the more tedious proceſs of purchaſing ſtock, and fattening the cattle; but a ſource of improvement to the land, and conſequently ſuperior in the iſſue, is by this means done away.

10. From the great quantities conſumed by ſtock, it may not be amiſs to mention the manner of boiling, &c. which is almoſt univerſally by ſteam, in a large hamper or tub, perforated, and placed over the water; in this way they are readier for uſe than by being immerged in water; after

* Vulgarly called meal-ſhudes.

which

which they are given either warm or cold, mixed with chaff, bran, hay-ſeeds, barley, or oatmeal.

To conclude, if America, whence this choice vegetable was firſt imported, and yielded nothing elſe to the reſearches of the European than the potatoe, the preſent generation would have reaſon to be thankful for the acquiſition, and to the planters in Lancaſhire, for their ſpirited attention to the cultivation of that excellent root.

ON CERTAIN ROMAN CUSTOMS.

[From the Italian.]

FLATTERY and ſervility came into the world at the ſame time with power; and though a generous ſpirit cannot reconcile itſelf to them, yet have they obtained, among all ranks in all nations, and often, in a manner, beyond any thing among us. It is hardly to be conceived to what a degree the poor, the candidates for offices, the clients, and the dependants among the Romans, that people ſo celebrated for magnanimity, carried their flattery and obſequiouſneſs. The modern ceremonies of courts, or the reſpect of vaſſals to their lords, is familiarity or neglect, in compariſon with their aſſiduity and debaſement.

Attendance among the Romans was expreſſed by the word *aſſectatio*, which will not bear an Engliſh tranſlation, and included three parts, called, *ſalutatio*, *deductio*, and *aſſiduitas*; all three indiſpenſible duties to be paid to thoſe from whom any thing was expected. The firſt of theſe ceremonies was the *ſalutatio*, and this was not a tranſitory ſalute in the ſtreet, but the poor and dependants uſed to reſort to the houſes of the great men to wiſh them a good day, and make tender of their perſons to them; theſe were called *amici communes*, and crowded the hall and outward chambers: but Juvenal's third ſatire ſpeaks of the higheſt magiſtrates hurrying along for other purpoſes. They would ſtoop to make their bows at the houſes of widows, and ſuch as had no heirs; and theſe ſalutations being uſually paid at, or before, the dawn of day, were termed *officia antelucana*. This ſervile crowd, till their idol appeared, amuſed themſelves in the court or adjoining chambers, which, from thence, were called *cubicula ſalutatoria*; but in the houſes of the moſt eminent perſons, there was a diſtinction of chambers according to rank; the viſitants of quality going into the antichamber, while they who really wanted protection or relief ſtaid below.

At the appearance of the maſter of the houſe, the apartment rang with *ſalve* or *ave*; at firſt the title of *dominus* ſerved, but afterward that of *rex* came to be much more generally uſed; then, in their turn, and with the moſt reſpectful geſtures, they offered him their perſons and ſervices. Their compliments never failed of an affable return from the patrons, who were even not above beſtowing a kiſs on the beſt ſort of their attendants; and, after taking a turn in the court, they withdrew. When any one had fallen under the patron's diſpleaſure, he was denied admittance, or made to wait, or anſwered only with a nod, and ſometimes was obliged to retire without any anſwer. Something like this is not unfrequently ſeen among the great in our days. From this firſt viſit, ſome haſtened away to do the like at the houſes of other men in power, from whom alſo they had certain expectations; others ſtaid to attend their patron when he went abroad; but what ſets this ceremony in a very ridiculous light, is, that ſome took it in their heads to attend by proxy.

The ſecond way of paying their court was the *deductio*, which conſiſted in accompanying the great men to the forum or ſenate, and other places,

and back again to their houſes; a ceremony which would little agree with the buſineſs of this age: and, it is not to be queſtioned, but, upon ſuch occaſions, they put on their beſt attire. The moſt creditable attendants, or thoſe who were moſt in the great man's confidence, were neareſt his perſon; the patron himſelf went on foot, or in a litter: the others going before or after him. Thus, Martial informs us, that he had attended one Baſſus, when he waited on widows to wheedle them out of a good legacy. The ſame poet alſo mentions no leſs a perſon than Paulus, a conſul, as very aſſiduous in theſe morning viſits, and even dangling after litters; ſo low was the conſular dignity ſunk under the emperors. They who led the van in theſe proceſſions vent by the contemptuous name of *anteambulones*, and ſhowed their zeal for their patron by clearing the way.

The third way of their inſinuating themſelves into favour was the *aſſiduitas*, the very extreme of officiouſneſs; not returning home after the morning ſalutation, but waiting on their patron the whole day, wherever he went. It is true, they were generally of the indigent claſs who thus loitered away a day; knights or ſenators ſeldom condeſcended ſo far, unleſs they were *candidati*, put in for ſome employment, and then only to a perſon of diſtinguiſhed intereſt. The *aſſiduitas* was alſo performed by proxy. The train of theſe attendants at length growing a nuiſance in the ſtreets, a motion was made for reducing them to ſtated numbers, according to the patron's rank; but it was overborne by the tribunes of the people, who were fond of having a mob at their heels huzzaing them along. The compenſations which the great made to their followers after theſe ſervilities, to the poor, were proviſions, and ſometimes money and their protection; to others, their intereſt for preferments. This cuſtom, however, was not without its uſe to the young nobility; and was chiefly introduced, that they who aſpired to the chief poſts of the republic, might not only make intereſt among the leading men, but, by frequenting them, learn their eloquence, their politics, their virtues, and deportment. The dialogue *de Cauſis Corruptæ Eloquentiæ*, attributed to Tacitus or Quintilian, ſpeaks to this purpoſe: 'It was formerly a cuſtom for the father or relations of any young man of parts and education, who was deſigned to make a figure in the commonwealth, to recommend him to ſome eminent orator, to whom the youth attached himſelf, paying his court at his houſe, waiting on him every where, and eſpecially attending his pleadings. What glory comes any thing near that of orators? It is not only the men of buſineſs, the cloſe and careful, who value them, but every young gentleman of any hopes. The fathers are daily talking to their children of them; the very populace pride themſelves in knowing them, and point at them. The firſt deſire of a countryman or foreigner, at his coming to Rome, is to ſee thoſe perſons of whom he has heard ſo much.' Thus was it an uſage of no bad origin, but ſoon corrupted by ambition and avarice; the general motives alſo of modern attendance on the great.

N. L.

NOURMAHALL, *or the* QUEEN *of the* INDIES; *a Turkiſh Tale*: *Concluded from Page* 337.

PART II.

SEATED upon the higheſt pinnacle of the temple of fortune, with youth, beauty, and power in her poſſeſſion; and the revenues, the ſubjects, the pleaſures, and luxuries, of an immenſe empire at her command; revered by the nobles, and adored by the people, the queen of Indoſtan began her reign.

'Nothing is now wanting,' ſaid

ſhe, to herſelf, 'to complete my bliſs: for as I ſhall ſtudy to increaſe the happineſs of my people, they will, doubtleſs, wiſh to render my government permanent. Placed beyond the power of accident, every day will add to my ſatisfaction; and while my actions are the admiration of the preſent age, poſterity will gaze with pleaſure upon the name of Nourmahall, inſcribed in the volume which records the lives of the heroes and legiſlators that have adorned the world.'

Gehan-guir, from the time that he ſhared the ſovereignty with the queen, had, every hour, greater reaſon to be ſatisfied with the choice he had made of a coadjutor, as, by her, the burden of government was lifted from his ſhoulders; as her penetrating eye, and capacious mind, ſaw and provided againſt all poſſible contingencies.

The nations around, who had paid but little reſpect to the meekneſs of the ſultan, her towering ſpirit awed into ſubmiſſion. The rebellion of Kouraın, after a few fruitleſs efforts on the part of the prince, ſhrunk to nothing before the valour of troops, ſtimulated and rewarded by the beautiful Nourmahall. That chief, abandoned by his friends, who flocked to worſhip the ſun which had riſen in the empire, retired, and lived upon his government.

Upon the fall of rebellion, commerce, which had receded from the exterior provinces, again reared its head; the arts, which the firſt blaſt of civil commotion had ſcattered, returned; a long, long ſeries of years elapſed, and every new era that dawned was hailed as an epoch of happineſs, as it continued, and added to a long train of ſucceſſes that attended the ſubjects of the Mogul empire.

It is now time to pauſe, and aſk, whether reſpected abroad, revered at home, courted, flattered, adored, idolized—the happineſs of the ſultaneſs was inſured? Was ſhe perfectly ſatisfied with her auguſt ſituation, the pleaſures of which had been ſo ſtrongly impreſſed upon her mind? Far from it.

When the novelty ariſing from unlimited power had become familiar to her, ſhe found ſhe had only looked at the picture in the ſtrong glare of light which her vivid imagination had thrown upon it; that ſhe had only viewed the ſplendour, and that her dazzled eyes had never obſerved, that the moſt brilliant parts of the repreſentation were brought forward to the ſight by the ſtrong touches and dark ſhades of care, with which they were ſurrounded. She had never till now thought of the anxieties attendant upon a crown; ſhe now experienced the weight, as ſhe had before admired the glitter of that ornament; and found that her anxieties and difficulties were conſiderably increaſed by the indolence of Gehan-guir, who, happy to recede from a ſituation which he ſaw was much more ably filled, in a ſhort time left to the ſultana the management of all matters, foreign and domeſtic.

It was then ſhe diſcovered that her toil, by ſuch a tide of affairs, ruſhing upon her, was to a great degree increaſed, while her amuſements and pleaſures were abridged; as almoſt every hour was obliged to be dedicated, either to the arrangement or execution of the extenſive concerns of her immenſe empire.

For many years after governing had ceaſed to pleaſe, her ſpirit and underſtanding had enabled her to attend to the intricacies of it without repining; but as ſhe advanced in life, her good ſenſe was frequently urging her to withdraw from it. Contrary to the diſpoſition of moſt monarchs, whoſe ambition grows with their years, was the temper of Nourmahall. With her the pleaſures of pomp and power faded upon the mind; her wiſh to exerciſe deſpotic ſway decreaſed, ſhe ſighed for quiet and ſecluſion; and had as great a deſire to relinquiſh her elevated ſtation, as in her youth ſhe had to attain it.

'How little,' her heart whiſpered

to

to her in a moment of leiſure, 'do ſhort-ſighted mortals know what is beſt calculated to make them happy.' How little, with all my boaſted genius, till taught by experience, did I underſtand the real ſituation of a ſovereign. I had only conſidered him as an idol ſet up for his people to worſhip. I had only looked at the pleaſures attending unlimited ſway, without reflecting that a ſtrict account muſt be rendered of the uſe made of power thus delegated, and that, to a thinking mind, the wiſh to employ it properly, and diffuſe its influence around, as a guard, a protection, a bleſſing to the people, ſhould be the firſt object of a monarch's attention, and will, if ſedulouſly purſued, demand the whole of his time, and make his life a life of care.'

While Nourmahall made theſe reflections, the voluptuous Gehan-guir, was endeavouring to act in direct oppoſition to them; regardleſs of his ſubjects, his whole time was dedicated to pleaſure. His paſſion for her, which at firſt aroſe from her charms, then became blended with admiration of her underſtanding, was afterward abſorbed in the ſuperiority of her talents; and while he ſought the amuſements which younger beauties afforded, and for whom his fondneſs increaſed with his years, he only conſidered the once adored Nourmahall, as an object whoſe genius commanded the greateſt reverence and eſteem.

As fame had diſperſed upon the wings of every wind that blew, the ſtory of the daughter of Ibraham, the Perſian captain, and as none of the beauties that reigned in the ſeraglio were ignorant of the ſteps by which ſhe aſcended to her preſent elevated ſtation, they endeavoured to climb by the ſame means to the ſummit of power.

Splendid and faſcinating ſcenes were repeated before the eyes of the monarch, by the favourite of the hour, in which each diſplayed her taſte and elegance to the extent of her capacity; and probably ſome of their blandiſhments would have been attended with the ſucceſs which the ambitious rivals of Nourmahall wiſhed, had not an event happened, which put a final ſtop to the gaieties of the Haram, relieved her from the cares attendant upon a throne, and made her once more a dependant.

Gehan-guir, who had long been called the favourite of fortune, courted by pleaſures on every ſide, whoſe wiſhes were anticipated, and whom every morning awakened to new ſcenes of luxury; was enjoying the delights of the banquet, ſurrounded with the flatterers that had lately become his almoſt conſtant companions; the muſic ceaſed, while an ode was recited, which celebrated the virtues of the monarch.

The ſpeaker had concluded a ſtanza which compared his power to that of Omnipotence, and a hundred voices and inſtruments joined in full chorus to repeat the praiſes of the immortal Gehan-guir.

At that inſtant he was ſtruck by the angel of death: ſudden he fell at the foot of his throne, and though aſſiſtance was near, it was ineffectual. An arm more potent, a power ſuperior to his own, had, from the height of his exaltation and vain glory, called the Great Mogul into his preſence.

This melancholy concluſion of a day, which had began with ſuch feſtivity, filled the palace with lamentations.

The women tore their hair, and beat their breaſts. The eunuchs, and ſlaves acted a thouſand extravagances: the nobles aſſembled, and commotions began to ſhake the peace and order of the city.

Though this ſtroke of deſtiny fell upon Nourmahall, without any previous notice or preparation, and ſhe expected to be the greateſt ſufferer, yet ſhe bore it with the ſame firmneſs of mind, which had diſtinguiſhed her through life; and obſerving the unſettled ſtate of the empire, ſhe ſet herſelf to remedy the evil. She called the grandees together, whom, in an

eloquent ſpeech, ſhe exhorted to preſerve the quiet of the ſtate, both for their own ſakes, and thoſe of the people, who muſt, many of them unavoidably fall, in caſe of civil contention. She repeated to them, that ſhe only retained the crown till the arrival of the ſon of Gehan-guir, when ſhe would reſign that ſymbol of monarchy with more pleaſure than ſhe received it. Her voice and animated manner, ſtilled the murmurs which had ſtolen upon her ears, when ſhe entered the hall, and, charmed by her elocution, ſome of the nobles offered to ſupport her in her preſent ſituation, but that, with marks of diſpleaſure, ſhe poſitively refuſed.

Kouram, or as he was afterward called Cha-gehan, was at his father's death in a diſtant part of Indoſtan where he had lived for ſome time. Though he had laid down his arms, curbed by the effective meaſures adopted by the queen, whoſe genius he obſerved ſoared far above his, that circumſtance had not induced him to retract the ill opinion he had conceived of her: on the contrary, he expected the ſtrongeſt oppoſition from the ambition that had marked her former conduct. Therefore, when he received the news of his father's death, he collected an army, and expected nothing ſo much as to be impeded by the forces of the empire in his way to Delhi. Great was his ſurpriſe when he approached that capital, to obſerve the few ſoldiers that were ſtationed upon the road, opening their ranks and ſuffering his troops to march through them, paying him at the ſame time military honours: and ſtill greater upon his arrival at the city, when the gates were thrown open, and he was welcomed with the loudeſt acclamations. A deputation of the principal nobility, who had been ſent by the queen, conducted him to the palace.

A reception ſo totally different from what he expected, added to the ſurpriſe of Cha-gehan. When he entered the hall of audience, Nourmahall, dreſſed in one of her moſt ſplendid habits, was ſeated upon the throne.

At his approach ſhe aroſe, and deſcending the ſteps, met him in the hall, and kneeling, preſented him the ſceptre, ſaying, 'Receive, oh, ſultan! this ſymbol of power, as a legacy left you by your father; aſcend the throne of your anceſtors; and that your reign, guided by juſtice, and conducted by humanity, may be long and proſperous, ſhall ever be the prayer of Nourmahall.

The prince (when his aſtoniſhment had ceaſed) ſaid, 'How can I place myſelf on this elevated ſeat, without bluſhing, to ſee one who has guided the ſafety, and increaſed the ſplendour of the Mogul empire, kneel at my feet? Riſe, illuſtrious Nourmahall, and ſhare it with me: be my guide and aſſiſtant, through the arduous taſk I have undertaken.' 'At your command,' ſhe replied, 'I riſe, but it is only to retire: too long has my ambition been ſatiated; too much of greatneſs have I known. I have had no time even to mourn for my late huſband. The gaudy trappings and ſplendour which my ſituation, as repreſentative of a great empire demanded, are from this hour abandoned for ever. To widow's weeds and ſtrict ſeclufion I dedicate two ſucceeding years. Yet ere I go, I have a double petition to the ſultan: my firſt requeſt is, that he would endeavour to alleviate the ſorrows of his brother Merodac, who has been releaſed from priſon by my orders, but who has ſuffered ſeverely in being deprived of ſight and empire (by the late monarch) for his rebellion and diſobedience. The other more immediately concerns myſelf, as it turns my mind to that hour, when inflamed by ambition, panting for fame, and wiſhing for the applauſe of poſterity, I diſobeyed the laws of our prophet, and cauſed the likeneſs of creatures, both in heaven and on earth, to be ſtamped upon the coin, which he, diſpenſing the commands of a ſuperior

power,

power, had forbidden. Let those pieces, which are now dispersed over your dominions, as tokens of my vanity, be recalled; and as vanity no longer exists in my bosom, I shall lay aside all vestiges of royalty, and (with your permission) retire to the black marble palace, where, as a tribute to the memory of Gehan-guir, I shall, in my daily prayers, invoke the omnipotent Allah, to shower down his choicest blessings upon the head of his son.'

Nourmahall made her obeisance to the sultan, and left the hall followed by the eunuchs, and the ladies of her train.

Cha-gehan, struck by her manner, astonished at the order with which affairs had been conducted, and penetrated by her generosity, settled upon her the palace at Agra, and the extensive demesnes annexed to it.

Two years the princess passed in seclusion: she afterward (as her active mind preyed upon itself when unemployed) turned her attention to works of utility and benevolence: she instructed the young, supported the aged, and cultivated genius that would otherwise have languished in obscurity.

Her high rank, and extensive talents, attracted those around her, whose dispositions and pursuits were similar to her own. Thus, in the pleasures of domestic society, the amusements of literature, and the refinements of the polite arts; the days of Nourmahall glided smoothly on; and, happy in her situation, she frequently asked herself this question; 'What is the satisfaction arising from dissipation, splendour, power, pomp, and ambition, compared to that which I now enjoy?' She then extended her idea, and continued: 'After having long reigned the tyrant of his people, after having run his career of what is falsely called glory! After having conquered provinces and nations, might we not repeat the question I have just asked myself, and with great propriety say to a monarch or hero! Ah, friend! I much doubt whether your time would not have been more usefully employed to yourself, and more acceptably in the eye of Omnipotence, had you tended a flock, cultivated a garden, or taught a village school.'

ILLUSTRATIONS OF ANCIENT MANNERS.

'Is there any thing whereof it may be said, see, this is new? It hath been already of old time.' SOLOMON.

THE industry of certain antiquaries has lately been usefully and agreeably employed in investigating the manners of ancient nations, not those great actions which appear on the page of history, but the domestic peculiarities of different ages. To the labours of these writers we owe very considerable obligations. They have succeeded in producing much curious information, tending to elucidate the history of the human mind, and, in my opinion, tending to prove that there is not so very great a difference between the fashions and follies of the past and the present time, as superficial observers are apt to suppose.

The evidence we possess of the existence of certain manners and customs in ancient times, is not always of the direct and positive kind. We are obliged to pick up hints here and there, and arrange them into something like a probable account: because history, properly so called, has, in general, been silent on the subject. We have recourse, therefore, to the writings of the ancient philosophers and poets, for a species of information which, though indirect, may nevertheless be as firmly relied upon as any facts that are founded on positive historical evidence. For example, when Seneca advises his young friend not to enter into

into the fopperies of dreſs, we have a right to conclude that ſuch fopperies were not uncommon with young men of family. When we find Horace ſatirizing thoſe men who are perpetually wiſhing to change their conditions, we may deduce that a repining and diſcontented temper is no novelty in the hiſtory of man.

I was inſenſibly drawn into theſe reflections, by reading, a few nights ago, one of the books of the Apocrypha, called Eccleſiaſticus, a very valuable collection of moral precepts, and according to the notion juſt laid down, a very copious illuſtration of ancient manners. At what time the books, called Apocrypha, were written, is uncertain. The book called Eccleſiaſticus is attributed to Jeſus the Son of Sirach. It contains ſome of the moſt valuable precepts on wiſdom, humility, ſobriety, temperance, converſation, company, friendſhip, and other virtues and duties, that are any where to be found; and if the few ſpecimens I am about to give, tend to excite an attention to it, I am certain I ſhall have performed an acceptable ſervice to the world, independent of the particular purpoſe which I firſt had in my eye, namely, to ſhew how little the manners of mankind are materially altered in the courſe of many centuries, or the conſtitution of his mind changed. It was a poſition, moreover, of Solomon, 'the reputed author of the book of Eccleſiaſtes, that 'there is nothing new under the ſun;' and it will be found, if rightly underſtood, to be ſtrictly true.

The neceſſity of being cool, temperate, and diſcreet in our converſation-diſputes, is experienced by every man who goes much into company. He will ſoon learn that there are ſome men of ſuch a boiſterous loquacity, and wayward temper, that it is impoſſible to argue with them; and that there are others ſo rude, vulgar, and unmannerly, as to reſent the moſt harmleſs jeſt by a torrent of wild abuſe, and indecent reproaches. But this is far from being a new caſe. The author of Eccleſiaſticus ſays, 'Strive not with a man that is full of tongue, and heap not wood upon his fire. Jeſt not with a rude man, leſt thy anceſtors be diſgraced.' The latter part of this precept will appear a neceſſary caution in the caſe of rude and illiterate men, who are unable to repel an argument or a witticiſm without having recourſe to the groſſneſs of perſonal reflection.

In the preſent ſtate of the world, the giving of ſecurity or bond is a matter of acknowledged delicacy, becauſe of great danger in the eyes of prudent men. It is among commercial men a proof of great confidence and friendſhip to become bound for one another. But as the chance is in general ſuppoſed to be more in favour of the bond being uſeleſs than neceſſary, many men have incautiouſly put their hand to writings of this kind, as a matter of mere form. Our author plainly inſinuates that this was a common practice in his day. 'Be not ſurety above thy power. Sureſhip hath undone many of good eſtate, and ſhaken them as a wave of the ſea: mighty men hath it driven from their houſes, ſo that they wandered among ſtrange nations.' He does not ſeem to approve much of what we call a motion for a new trial: 'Go not to law with a judge, for they will judge for him according to his honour.'

Some years ago, in France, and ſtill in this country, the higheſt feat of faſhionable gallantry was to take an opera-actreſs into keeping. Theſe ladies were ſupported in a rank of ſplendour which ſeldom laſted long, from the inability of their dupe to ſatisfy their avarice and prodigality. It is needleſs to comment upon the folly, or rather madneſs, of purchaſing the miſerable favours of a ſelfiſh proſtitute at ſo great an expence. Yet it appears to be no new ſpecies of inſanity. 'Uſe not much the company of a woman that is a *ſinger*, leſt thou be taken with her attempts.' I do not ſay that this proves the exiſtence of an opera in thoſe days, but it proves

proves that the faſcinations of the ſyren tribe have always produced much the ſame effects.

The mutability of friendſhips may eaſily be ſuppoſed of high antiquity. 'Forſake not an old friend; for the new is not comparable to him,' is an advice not leſs neceſſary in the preſent than in former times.

Nothing is more obvious in the manners of our age, than that want of economy which ariſes from an imitation of our ſuperiors in rank and riches. It is viſible in our education, in our way of living, and viſiting one another, and in a fondneſs for keeping company above us, and emulating their extravagance. Yet even here we cannot boaſt of the originality of our folly. 'Burthen not thyſelf,' ſays the ſon of Sirach, 'above thy power while thou liveſt; and have no fellowſhip with one that is mightier and richer than thyſelf; for how agree the *kettle* and the *earthen pot* together? for if the one be ſmitten againſt the other, it ſhall be broken.' The propriety of declining the invitations of great men, and much of their manners in former times, may be learnt from the following: 'If thou be invited of a mighty man, withdraw thyſelf, and ſo much the more will he invite thee. Preſs not thou upon him, leſt thou be put back; ſtand not far off, leſt thou be forgotten. Affect not to be made equal to him in talk, and believe not his many words: for with much communication will he tempt thee, and ſmiling upon thee will get out thy ſecrets.'

Moſt men have experienced the many miſchiefs which ariſe from retailing the converſation of one company in another, the fondneſs for carrying anecdotes from houſe to houſe, and giving ourſelves a falſe conſequence from having the power to divulge ſome petty animoſity, which, if forgotten, would produce no bad effect, but if remembered, is always remembered with exaggeration. There can be little doubt that ſuch goſſips may trace their pedigree to very remote antiquity. Rehearſe not unto another that which is told unto thee, and thou ſhalt never fare the worſe. Whether it be to a friend or foe, talk not of other men's lives; and if thou canſt without offence, reveal them not. For he heard and obſerved thee, and when time cometh he will hate thee. If thou haſt heard a word, let it die with thee; and be bold, it will not burſt thee.' At the ſame time our author is inclined to make great allowance for inadvertency, or what we call a *lapſus linguæ*. 'There is one that ſlippeth in his ſpeech, but not from his heart: and who is he that hath not offended with his tongue?'

The ſtudy of phyſiognomy, or phyſiognomony, has lately been revived by Lavater, who has unqueſtionably brought it to conſiderable perfection. But it may be doubted whether he is not deceived in thinking that it may be taught like other ſciences, and whether there is not much in his ſyſtem that is whimſical and unfounded. Every man, however, has by nature ſomething of the ſcience, and nothing is more common than to ſuſpect the man who never looks his neighbour in the face. There is a degree of cunning in ſuch characters which is always dangerous, but by no means new. 'There is a wicked man that hangeth down his head ſadly; but inwardly he is full of deceit. Caſting down his countenance, and making as if he heard not. A man may be known by his look, and one that hath underſtanding by his countenance, when thou meeteſt him.' Something like the following occurs in ſeveral of Lavater's Aphoriſms: 'A man's attire, and exceſſive laughter, and gait, ſhew what he is.'

The want of firmneſs and of a ſteady collected mind, often involves perſons of good diſpoſitions in embarraſſments of the moſt diſtreſſing kind. From an averſion, which is praiſeworthy, to giving pain, they comply with every requeſt, and abound in haſty promiſes which it is not in their power, and ſcarcely

ſcarcely even in their inclination to fulfill. We ſhould have, perhaps, thought this error peculiar to the refinement of a polite age, if our author had not cautioned us againſt falſe ſhame. 'There is that for bashfulneſs promiſeth to his friend, and maketh him his enemy for nothing.'

Few complaints are oftener repeated in our day and nation than thoſe of neglected merit. Every play or novel has ſome meritorious half-pay officer, who is put by to give place to boys, pimps, and paraſites. Not leſs common are the complaints of men of learning on the ſcore of neglect. But none of theſe things is without a precedent, and as far as that can ſanctify the contempt of the world, they are welcome to it. 'There be two things,' ſaith the author of Eccleſiaſticus, 'that grieve my heart: a man of war that ſuffereth poverty; and men of underſtanding that are not ſet by.'

One more illuſtration, and I ſhall conclude the preſent paper. Trade, when not followed upon the principles of ſtrict juſtice and integrity, is often found to harden the heart, and pervert the mind from diſtinguiſhing the ſhades of vice and virtue. It gives riſe to many petty frauds and meanneſſes, which often infect a whole nation, and are ranked among its characteriſtics. The danger which men of good diſpoſitions in early life are expoſed to from purſuing trade, rather as it has been than as it ought to be purſued, is not peculiar to the progreſs of commerce in our days. We ought to recollect that trade once floriſhed in the old world, much more extenſively than it perhaps has ever done in the new, and that few of our moſt opulent traders are to be compared to a merchant of Tyre or Sidon, except in the reſpect noticed by our author. 'A merchant ſhall hardly keep himſelf from doing wrong; and an huckſter ſhall not be freed from ſin. As a nail ſticketh faſt between the joinings of the ſtones, ſo doth ſin ſtick cloſe between buying and ſelling.'

A few more of theſe quotations, and ſome inferences from the relation they bear to the manners of the preſent age, ſhall be the ſubject of a future paper.

C.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* MAGNETIC FLUID, *by Captain* O'Brien Drury, *of the Royal Navy.*

THE Magnetic Fluid and its phenomena, are not leſs ſingular than obſcure, and have too long engaged the attention of philoſophers for me to offer an hypotheſis on the ſubject. I mean only to ſpeak to matter of fact, which I am led to believe may be ſerviceable to navigation, eſpecially ſhould the variation of the compaſs ever be made uſe of as a method of aſcertaining the longitude.

It is not neceſſary to enter into a detail of experiments to prove the exiſtence of the magnetic fluid which circulates continually around and through a magnet, as it is fully demonſtrated by the arrangement of iron filings thrown on glaſs, placed over a magnet.

Experience ſhows us that the needle of a compaſs, as well as all other magnets, whether artificial or real, perpetually loſes ſomething of its magnetic power, which often produces a difference exceeding a point; and I am well convinced that the great errors in ſhip-reckonings proceed more frequently from the incorrectneſs of the compaſs than from any other cauſe.

Steel cannot be too highly tempered for the needle of a ſea-compaſs, as the more it is hardened, the more permanent is the magnetiſm it receives; but to preſerve the magnetiſm, and conſequently the polarity of the needle, I recommend to have the needle caſed with thin, well-poliſhed,

ſoft iron, or elſe to have it armed at the poles with a bit of ſoft iron.

I have found, from many experiments, that the caſed needle preſerved its magnetiſm in a much more perfect degree than the needle not caſed; and I have ſometimes thought that the magnetic power of the caſed needle had encreaſed, while the magnetic power of the uncaſed and unarmed needle always loſes of its polarity.

Some time ago I placed a caſed needle, an armed needle, and one without either caſe or armour, in a room, for three months, each having at that time preciſely the ſame direction, and nearly the ſame degree of force. At the expiration of the three months, I found that the caſed needle, and the armed needle, had not in the leaſt changed their direction, but the other had changed two degrees, and had loſt very conſiderably of its magnetic power. If there was any change in either of the other needles, it was too inconſiderable to be perceived.

Theſe obſervations appear to me to be new, and may tend to great improvement in our ſea-compaſs.—The are ſubmitted to the conſideration of philoſophers.

A SERIOUS COMPLAINT.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

AS you are, by virtue of your office, bound to give a patient hearing to the calls of the diſtreſſed, ſo I am perſuaded you are inclined, by the benevolence of your intentions, to give as much relief as lies in your power. My complaint is, indeed, of a nature ſo very ſingular, that while I make it, I am in doubt whether it be in your power to afford a remedy: yet I am willing to claim the common right of mankind, the right of making my wrongs public.

To be brief, ſir, the parties againſt which I am to bring a very ſerious charge are inanimate beings of themſelves, and therefore do not merit cenſure in their own perſons; the abuſe of them, however, as it involves many of my fellow-countrymen, will not, I truſt, be received as a matter of indifference. I have to prefer a charge againſt the frequent uſe of certain words in our language, which, although ſhort, and ſeldom exceeding one ſyllable, yet imply in them the importance of a whole harangue. They have likewiſe more weight and influence in the deliberations of mankind than all the reſt of the language put together, whether we take a peep at the ſolemn debates of an auguſt ſenate, or boldly liſten to the more free altercations of a party of pleaſure.

The chief of theſe obnoxious words is—*But*. This ſingle word has overthrown more ſchemes of great magnitude and importance, has broken more chains of ſound argument, and acute ratiocination, than any of its brethren. How often, when I have been charmed and convinced by a patriotic ſpeech of three or four hours, have I been ſhocked to hear another orator get up, and, after recapitulating all that the former had ſaid, which, I thought, ſhewed that he was as much convinced as myſelf, immediately comes down with a *But*—and away goes all the ſound ſenſe, ſolid argument, flowery metaphor, nay the very matter-of-fact, which had impreſſed my mind ſo ſtrongly.

But is a favourite word with all your men of candour, and who would wiſh to appear condeſcending and conciliating. 'To be ſure, ſir, what you advance is very well founded; your arguments are well put, and they apply cloſely to the caſe in point. More eloquence, too, I have never heard upon any ſubject; and, upon the whole, what you have ſaid does

equal honour to your head and heart, and I at firſt felt myſelf impelled to join iſſue with you in promoting a plan ſo excellent in itſelf and ſo beneficial in its conſequences—*But!*'—The moment, ſir, this *But* gets into his head, he forgets all his candour, and, in ten minutes, proves that there is not a particle of truth or common ſenſe in all he has heard from the learned gentleman whom he complimented with ſo much candour.

But is alſo the favourite and true friend to all thoſe, who, from ill-nature, inability, or any other ſecret reaſon, do not chooſe to grant the favours required of it. *Avarus*, who is worth a plum, would gladly aſſiſt a poor relation, who wants only a few pounds to begin buſineſs with, *But*—. The great man, too, is exceedingly happy to ſee you, perfectly well remembers that he promiſed you the place which is now become vacant, and no man on earth is more ſenſible of the obligations he owes you for your ſupport laſt election, nor more ſincerely wiſhes to ſerve you upon every occaſion, *But*—. Miſs Laura, perfectly diſengaged in her affections, and always happy when ſhe can pleaſe her parents, who have propoſed a lover of birth, rank, and fortune equal to her own, of unexceptionable perſon, manners, and diſpoſition; to be ſure it ſhocks her—ſhe has the very higheſt opinion of the gentleman's merit, and really knows very few like him, *But*—.

Can any thing be more miſchievous than a word of this importance? You ſee it ſteels the heart againſt benevolence, gratitude, and obedience; breaks off treaties, obliges men to deny their moſt particular friends, and, I have little doubt, is a very great enemy to trade and commerce. Its effects in the political world may eaſily be conceived. For my part, although I wiſh to be delicate, and therefore ſhall ſay but little, yet, among friends, I have no ſcruple in hinting, 'that the ſucceſs of our combined armies would have been greater, *But*'——.

To do *But* juſtice, however, there is ſomething of openneſs and candour, and ſomething of deciſion and firmneſs about it, which ends an affair very quickly, by ſhowing us the worſt at firſt. I cannot ſay ſo much of another very obnoxious word *If*. The former is manly; but this is a ſneaking, qualifying ſcoundrel, that dares not ſpeak out, or look you in the face. You do not know what it means, nor how far it is intended to go. It may mean every thing, undoubtedly, but, at the ſame time, it may mean any thing. Now double-dealing is hateful between man and man, and is eminently promoted by an *If*.

A trader of credit applies to his banker to diſcount ſome bills, a proceſs which the calls of trade render neceſſary on critical occaſions, and he demonſtrates to him undeniably the goodneſs of the *paper*. 'Why, Mr. —, theſe bills may be very good, and the drawers, acceptors, and indorſers equally ſo, and I ſhould have no ſcruple about doing what you deſire, for I have the greateſt inclination to ſerve you, *If*'—. The buſineſs would have ended here had *But* been the word; after a number of mortifying applications, the buſineſs is done in a half-and-half-way, attended with very unpleaſant circumſtances. What is of more conſequence, at preſent, to the nation at large, I am very confidently aſſured of two things, which I ſhall have no ſcruple in imparting, through the medium of your Magazine.—The one is, (I ſpeak from very high authority) that we ſhould never have been involved in the preſent war, which is very expenſive, and not very ſucceſsful, *If*—. The other is, that a peace would have been concluded long ago between the belligerent powers, which they are all ſatisfied is abſolutely neceſſary for their finances and commerce, *If*—. Theſe two articles of intelligence I do not communicate from the oſtentatious motive of ſhowing my intimacy with men in the ſecret. I wiſhed only to ſhow the impertinence of an *If*.

Were

Were I, however, inclined to be vain, I might ſafely challenge the editors of newſpapers to produce two articles of news more to be depended upon.

I have ſaid that *If* is a ſneaking fellow. He is remarkably cautious in his bargains, drives the nail to the head, and is ſo fearful, and full of ſuppoſes, that it is as impoſſible to cheat him, as to prevent him from cheating others. Yet he does all this with ſuch an apparent candour, ſuch an air of prudence, and ſuch reſpectful attention to the party applying to him, that he ſeldom fails to get entire credit for mere ſelf-preſervation, inſtead of a diſobliging temper or an avaricious diſpoſition. *If* being a word of good breeding, is very much made uſe of by the managers of theatres, who would accept every play and every actor offered to them, *If*—. This fatal word has ſent many a play to oblivion, and many a writer to a place where he does not wiſh to be remembered.

Perhaps is another word of the ſame breed with *But* and *If*, and partakes of the gentleneſs of the latter; indeed it has moſt of the qualities of an *If*; but is infinitely more cautious. It is therefore uſed by all who are afraid to give an opinion in matters of conſequence, in critical times, when freedom of opinion is not very ſafe. As far as it concerns the affairs of common life between man and man, it is liable to the ſame objections as *If*; in judging of political affairs, and in canvaſſing and criticiſing the lives and actions of men, with whom we have but little acquaintance, and in whom we are nevertheleſs much intereſted, a *perhaps* judiciouſly uſed would, I am perſuaded, lead to a candid way of thinking, and heal many of thoſe breaches which are occaſioned by the unhappy mixture of ignorance and intemperance, prejudice and paſſion, intereſt and common ſenſe.

I might, ſir, go on to complain of ſome other words which are the cauſe of great miſchief, from the eaſe with which they may be uſed, and the little ſcruple which moſt people have in abuſing them. I ſhall not, however, take up more of your room, than in expreſſing my hope that you will admit the preſent letter. *If* you comply, *perhaps* it may not be unpleaſing to your readers; and I may be induced to continue the ſubject in a future letter, *But* whether I ſhall, or not,

I am, ſir, &c.

POLYSYLLABLE.

MEMOIRS *of the* LIFE *and* WRITINGS *of* TORQUATO TASSO:

Concluded from Page 320.

THIS ſecond confinement of Taſſo was much longer than the firſt. He applied in vain to the pope, the emperor, and all the powers of Italy, to obtain his liberty: till, at laſt, after ſeven years impriſonment, he gained what he ſo ardently wiſhed for, in the following manner.

Cæſar of Eſte having brought his new ſpouſe, Virginia of Medicis, to Ferrara, all the relations of that illuſtrious houſe aſſembled together on this occaſion, and nothing was ſeen in the whole city but feſtivals and rejoicings. Vincento Gonzaga, prince of Mantua, particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf among the great perſonages then at the duke's court. This nobleman interceeded ſo earneſtly with Alphonſo for Taſſo's liberty, that he at laſt obtained it *, and carried him with him to Mantua, where he lived with him, ſometime after the death of duke Guglielmo, highly favoured.

It is ſaid that the young prince, who was naturally gay, being deſirous to authorize his pleaſures by the example of a philoſopher, intro-

* Ann. æt. 42.

duced one day into Taſſo's company three ſiſters, to ſing and play upon inſtruments: theſe ladies were all very handſome, but not of the moſt rigid virtue. After ſome ſhort diſcourſe, he told Taſſo, that he ſhould take two of them away, and would leave one behind, and bade him take his choice. Taſſo anſwered 'that it coſt Paris very dear to give the preference to one of the goddeſſes, and therefore, with his permiſſion, he deſigned to retain the three.' The prince took him at his word, and departed; when Taſſo, after a little converſation, diſmiſſed them all handſomely with preſents.

At laſt, weary of living in a continual ſtate of dependence, he reſolved to retire to Naples, and endeavour to recover his mother's jointure, which had been ſeized upon by her relations when he went into exile with his father Bernardo. This appeared the only means to place him in the condition of life he ſo much deſired. He applied to his friends, and having procured favourable letters to the viceroy, he took leave of the duke of Mantua and repaired to Bergamo *, where he ſtayed ſome time, and thence went to Naples †.

While Taſſo continued at Naples, dividing his time between his ſtudies and the proſecution of his law-ſuit, the young count of Palena, by whom he was highly eſteemed, perſuaded him to take up his reſidence with him for ſome time: but in this affair he had not conſulted the prince of Conca, his father, who, though he had a value for Taſſo, yet could not approve of his ſon's receiving into his houſe the only perſon that remained of a family once devoted to the prince of Salerno. A contention being likely to enſue, on this account, between the father and ſon, Taſſo, with his uſual goodneſs of diſpoſition, to remove all occaſion of diſpute, withdrew from Naples, and retired to Biſaccio ‡, with his friend Manſo, in whoſe company he lived ſome time with great tranquillity.

In this place Manſo had an opportunity to examine the ſingular effects of Taſſo's melancholy; and often diſputed with him concerning a familiar ſpirit, which he pretended to converſe with. Manſo endeavoured, in vain, to perſuade his friend that the whole was the illuſion of a diſturbed imagination; but the latter was ſtrenuous in maintaining the reality of what he aſſerted; and, to convince Manſo, deſired him to be preſent at one of thoſe myſterious converſations. Manſo had the complaiſance to meet him the next day, and while they were engaged in diſcourſe, on a ſudden he obſerved that Taſſo kept his eyes fixed upon a window, and remained in a manner immoveable: he called him by his name, ſeveral times, but received no anſwer: at laſt Taſſo cried out, 'There is the friendly ſpirit who is come to converſe with me: look, and you will be convinced of the truth of all that I have ſaid.' Manſo heard him with ſurpriſe: he looked, but ſaw nothing except the ſun-beams darting through the window: he caſt his eyes all over the room, but could perceive nothing; and was juſt going to aſk where the pretended ſpirit was, when he heard Taſſo ſpeak with great earneſtneſs, ſometimes putting queſtions to the ſpirit, and ſometimes giving anſwers, delivering the whole in ſuch a pleaſing manner, and with ſuch elevated expreſſions, that he liſtened with admiration, and had not the leaſt inclination to interrupt him. At laſt, this uncommon converſation ended with the departure of the ſpirit, as appeared by Taſſo's words; who turning toward Manſo, aſked him if his doubts were removed. Manſo was more amazed than ever; he ſcarce knew what to think of his friend's ſituation, and waved any further converſation on the ſubject.

At the approach of winter they returned to Naples, when the prince of

* Ann. æt. 43. † Ann. æt. 44. ‡ Ann. æt. 45.

Palena again preſſed Taſſo to reſide with him; but Taſſo, who judged it highly unadviſeable to comply with his requeſt, reſolved to retire to Rome, and wait there the iſſue of his law-ſuit. He lived in that city about a year in high eſteem with pope Sextus V, when being invited to Florence by Ferdinando, grand duke of Tuſcany, (who had been cardinal at Rome, when Taſſo firſt reſided there, and who now employed the pope's intereſt to procure a viſit from him) he could not withſtand ſuch ſolicitations, but went to Florence, where he met with a moſt gracious reception *. Yet not all the careſſes he received at the duke's court, nor all the promiſes of that prince, could overcome his love for his native country, or leſſen the ardent deſire he had to lead a retired and independent life. He therefore took his leave of the grand duke, who would have loaded him with preſents; but Taſſo, as uſual, could be prevailed upon to accept of no more than was neceſſary for his preſent occaſions. He returned to Naples by the way of Rome †, and the old prince of Conca dying about this time, the young count of Palena prevailed upon Taſſo, by the mediation of Manſo, to accept of an apartment in his palace. Here he applied himſelf to a correction of his Jeruſalem, or rather to compoſe a new work entitled Jeruſalem Conquered, which he had begun during his firſt reſidence at Naples. The prince of Conca, being jealous leſt any one ſhould deprive him of the poet and poem, cauſed him to be ſo narrowly watched that Taſſo obſerved it, and being diſpleaſed at ſuch a proceeding, left the prince's palace and retired to his friend Manſo's, where he lived maſter of himſelf and his actions; yet he ſtill continued upon good terms with the prince of Conca.

In a ſhort time after he publiſhed his Jeruſalem Conquered, which poem, as a French writer obſerves ‡, 'is a ſufficient proof of the injuſtice of the criticiſms that have been paſſed upon his Jeruſalem Delivered, ſince the Jeruſalem Conquered, in which he endeavoured to conform himſelf to the taſte of his critics, was not received with the ſame approbation as the former poem, where he had entirely given himſelf up to the enthuſiaſm of his genius.' He had likewiſe deſigned a third correction of the ſame poem, which, as we are informed, was to have been partly compounded of the Jeruſalem Delivered and Conquered; but this work was never completed. The above-cited author remarks, 'that in all probability, this laſt performance would not have equalled the firſt:' and indeed our poet ſeems to owe his fame to the Jeruſalem Delivered, the ſecond poem upon that ſubject being little known.

Manſo's garden commanded a full proſpect of the ſea: Taſſo and his friend being one day in a ſummer-houſe with Scipio Belprato, Manſo's brother-in-law, obſerving the waves agitated with a furious ſtorm, Belprato ſaid, 'that he was aſtoniſhed at the raſhneſs and folly of men who would expoſe themſelves to the rage of ſo mercileſs an element, when ſuch numbers had ſuffered ſhipwreck.' 'And yet,' ſaid Taſſo,' 'we every night go without fear to bed, where ſo many die every hour. Believe me, death will find us in all parts, and thoſe places, that appear the leaſt expoſed, are not always the moſt ſecure from his attacks.'

While Taſſo lived with his friend Manſo, cardinal Hippolito Aldobrandini ſucceeded to the papacy by the name of Clement VIII. His two nephews, Cynthio and Pietro Aldobrandini, were created cardinals: the firſt, afterward called the cardinal of St. George, was the eldeſt, a great patron of ſcience, and a favourer of learned men: he had known Taſſo when he reſided laſt at Rome, and had the greateſt eſteem for him; and now ſo earneſtly invited him to Rome, that he could not refuſe, but

* Ann. æt. 46. † Ann. æt. 47. ‡ Vie du Taſſe, à Amſterdam 1693.

once

would not be 'found altogether impracticable.' He was ſo earneſt in his requeſt, that the cardinal, unwilling to diſcompoſe him by a refuſal, gave him ſuch a doubtful anſwer as led him to believe that his deſire would be complied with. Taſſo then requeſting to be left alone, the cardinal took his farewel of him with tears in his eyes, leaving with him his confeſſor and ſome of the brethren of the monaſtery. In this condition he continued all night, and till the middle of the next day, the 25th of April, when finding himſelf fainting, he embraced his crucifix, uttering theſe words: *In manus tuas Domine*—but expired before he could finiſh the ſentence.

Taſſo was tall and well ſhaped, his complexion fair, but rather pale through ſickneſs and ſtudy; the hair of his head was of a cheſtnut colour, but that of his beard ſomewhat lighter, thick and buſhy; his forehead ſquare and high, his head large, and the fore part of it, toward the end of his life, altogether bald; his eye-brows were dark; his eyes full, piercing, and of a clear blue; his noſe large, his lips thin, his teeth well ſet and white; his neck well proportioned; his breaſt full; his ſhoulders broad, and all his limbs more ſinewy than fleſhy. His voice was ſtrong, clear, and ſolemn; he ſpoke with deliberation, and generally reiterated his laſt words: he ſeldom laughed, and never to exceſs. He was very expert in the exerciſes of the body. In his oratory, he uſed little action, and rather pleaſed by the beauty and force of his expreſſions, than by the graces of geſture and utterance, that compoſe ſo great a part of elocution. Such was the exterior of Taſſo: as to his mental qualities, he appears to have been a great genius, and a ſoul elevated above the common rank of mankind. It is ſaid of him, that there never was a ſcholar more humble, a wit more devout, or a man more amiable in ſociety. Never ſatisfied with his works, even when they rendered his name famous throughout the world always ſatisfied with his condition even when he wanted every thing entirely relying on Providence and his friends; without malevolence toward his greateſt enemies; only wiſhing for riches that he might be ſerviceable to others, and making a ſcruple to receive or keep any thing himſelf that was not abſolutely neceſſary. So blameleſs and regular a life could not but be ended by a peaceable death, which carried him off Ann. 1595, in the fifty-ſecond year of his age.

He was buried the ſame evening, without pomp, according to his deſire, in the church of St. Onuphrius, and his body was covered with a plain ſtone. Cardinal Cynthio had purpoſed to erect a magnificent monument to his memory, but the deſign was ſo long prevented by ſickneſs and other accidents, that, ten years after, Manſo coming to Rome, went to viſit his friend's remains, and would have taken on himſelf the care of building a tomb to him; but this cardinal Cynthio would by no means permit, having determined himſelf to pay that duty to Taſſo. However, Manſo prevailed ſo far as to have the following words engraved on the ſtone:

HIC JACET TORQVATVS TASSVS.

Cardinal Cynthio dying without putting his deſign in execution, cardinal Bonifacio Bevilacqua, of an illuſtrious family of Ferrara, cauſed a ſtately ſepulchre to be erected, in the church of St. Onuphrius, over the remains of a man whoſe works had made all other monuments ſuperfluous.

From theſe memoirs of Taſſo, which we have principally taken from his life by Mr. Hoole, the mere Engliſh reader may wiſh to be acquainted with the works of this truly excellent poet; and we are confident that he will be highly gratified by Mr. Hoole's admirable tranſlation of his Jeruſalem Delivered. Some critics, who were very faſhionable in their day, have, indeed, attempted to decry the merits

of Taſſo; but they have been fully refuted by Mr. Hoole, with whoſe obſervations on this head, we ſhall conclude this article.

M. Boileau, in one of his ſatires, had ridiculed the abſurdity of 'preferring the tinſel of Taſſo to the gold of 'Virgil:' this ſentiment was haſtily catched up by Mr. Addiſon, whoſe polite and elegant writings are an honour to our nation, but whoſe greateſt excellence was not, perhaps, either poetry or criticiſm; and he has zealouſly declared, in one of his Spectators, that 'he entirely agrees with M. Boileau, that one verſe in Virgil is worth all the tinſel of Taſſo.' Theſe declarations, as Mr. Hoole juſtly obſerves, indeed, amount to no more than that gold is better than tinſel, and true wit than falſe; a diſcovery which does no great honour to the author: but thoſe, who are accuſtomed to take things in the groſs, and to adopt the judgment of others becauſe they will not venture to judge for themſelves, have inferred, that all Virgil is gold, and that all Taſſo is tinſel; than which nothing can be more abſurd, whether M. Boileau and Mr. Addiſon intended the implication or not: it is as true, that the gold of Taſſo is better than his tinſel, as that the gold of Virgil is better; and though a verſe of Virgil is better than all Taſſo's tinſel, it does not follow that it is alſo better than Taſſo's gold. That Taſſo has gold, no man, who wiſhes to be thought qualified to judge of poetry, will chuſe to deny. It will alſo be readily admitted, that he has tinſel; but it will be eaſy to ſhew, not only that the gold preponderates, but that the tinſel, mingled with it, is not in a greater proportion than in many other compoſitions, which have received the applauſe of ſucceſſive ages, and been preſerved in the wreck of nations, when almoſt every other poſſeſſion has been abandoned.

By tinſel is meant falſe thought, and, perhaps, incredible fiction; and whoever is acquainted with the writings of Ovid, knows that he abounds with falſe thoughts, that he is continually playing upon words, and that his fictions are in the higheſt degree incredible; yet his Metamorpheſes have ever been held in great eſtimation by all judges of poetical merit.

But if Taſſo's merit is to be decided by authority, may not that of M. Voltaire be oppoſed with great propriety to the pedantry of M. Boleau, and the echo of Mr. Addiſon? 'There is (ſays he, in his Eſſay on Epic Poetry) no monument of antiquity in Italy that more deſerves the attention of a traveller, than the Jeruſalem of Taſſo. Time, which ſubverts the reputation of common performances, as it were by ſap, has rendered that of the Jeruſalem more ſtable and permanent: this poem is now ſung in many parts of Italy, as the Iliad was in Greece; and Taſſo is placed, without ſcruple, by the ſide of Homer and Virgil, notwithſtanding his defects, and the criticiſms of Deſpreaux. The Jeruſalem appears, in ſome reſpects, to be an imitation of the Iliad; but if Rinaldo is drawn after Achilles, and Godfrey after Agamemnon, I will venture to ſay, that Taſſo's copy is much ſuperior to the original: in his battles he has as much fire as Homer, with greater variety; his heroes, like thoſe of the Iliad, are diſtinguiſhed by a difference of character; but the characters of Taſſo are more ſkilfully introduced, more ſtrongly marked, and infinitely better ſuſtained; for there is ſcarce one in the Iliad that is not inconſiſtent with itſelf, and not one in the Jeruſalem that is not uniform throughout. Taſſo has painted what Homer only ſketched; he has attained the art of varying his tints by different ſhades of the ſame colour, and has diſtinguiſhed into different modes, many virtues, vices, and paſſions, which others have thought to be the ſame. Thus the characteriſtic, both of Godfrey and Aladine, is ſagacity, but the modes are finely varied; in Godfrey it is a calm circumſpective prudence, in Aladine a cruel policy. Courage is pre-

dominant both in Tancred and Argantes; but in Tancred it is a generous contempt of danger, in Argantes a brutal fury: ſo love in Armida is a mixture of levity and deſire; in Erminia it is a ſoft and amiable tenderneſs. There is, indeed, no figure in the picture that does not diſcover the hand of a maſter, not even Peter the hermit, who is finely contraſted with the enchanter Iſmeno, two characters, which are ſurely very much ſuperior to the Calchas and Talthybius of Homer. Rinaldo is, indeed, imitated from Achilles, but his faults are more excuſable, his character is more amiable, and his leiſure is better employed; Achilles dazzles us, but we are intereſted for Rinaldo.

'I am in doubt whether Homer has done right or wrong in making Priam ſo much the object of our pity, but it was certainly a maſterly ſtroke in Taſſo to render Aladine odious; for the reader would otherwiſe have been neceſſarily intereſted for the Mahometans againſt the Chriſtians, whom he would have been tempted to conſider as a band of vagabond thieves, who had agreed to ramble from the heart of Europe, in order to deſolate a country they had no right to, and maſſacre, in cold blood, a venerable prince, more than fourſcore years old, and his whole people, againſt whom they had no pretence of complaint.' M. Voltaire then obſerves, that this is indeed the true character of the cruſades: but Taſſo (continues he) has, 'with great judgment, repreſented them very differently; for, in his Jeruſalem, they appear to be an army of heroes marching under a chief of exalted virtue, to reſcue, from the tyranny of Infidels, a country which had been conſecrated by the birth and death of a God. The ſubject of the poem, conſidered in this view, is the moſt ſublime that can be imagined; and he has treated it with all the dignity of which it is worthy, and has even rendered it not leſs intereſting than elevated. The action is well conducted, and the incidents artfully interwoven; he ſtrikes out his adventures with ſpirit, and diſtributes his light and ſhade with the judgment of a maſter: he tranſports his reader from the tumults of war to the ſweet ſolitudes of love, and from ſcenes exquiſitely voluptuous he again tranſports him to the field of battle: he touches all the ſprings of paſſion, in a ſwift but regular ſucceſſion, and gradually riſes above himſelf as he proceeds from book to book: his ſtyle is in all parts equally clear and elegant; and when his ſubject requires elevation, it is aſtoniſhing to ſee how he impreſſes a new character upon the ſoftneſs of the Italian language, how he ſublimes it into majeſty, and compreſſes it into ſtrength. It muſt, indeed, be confeſſed, that in the whole poem there are about two hundred verſes in which the author has indulged himſelf in puerile conceits, and a mere play upon words; but this is nothing more than a kind of tribute which his genius paid to the taſte of the age he lived in, which had a fondneſs for points and turns that has ſince rather increaſed than diminiſhed.'

Such is the merit of Taſſo's Jeruſalem in the opinion of M. Voltaire: he has, indeed, pointed out, with great judgment, many defects in particular parts of the work, which he ſo much admires upon the whole; but this gives his teſtimony in behalf of Taſſo, ſo far as it goes, new force; and if Taſſo can be juſtified in ſome places where M. Voltaire has condemned him, it follows, that his general merit is ſtill greater than M. Voltaire has allowed.

The

THE CONDUCT OF EXPECTANT RELATIONS.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL MAGAZINE.

SIR,

I Have so long been a reader of your Magazine, that I can well remember some of its earliest productions, without meeting with a case parallel to that which I am now to impart. Yet the variety you afford has suited my taste, and the substantial merit of many of your articles has contributed to my improvement in matters, with which I had no other opportunity to become acquainted. An easy fortune, and somewhat of an indolent disposition, have rendered reading a necessary employment; and situated as I am at present, it forms the chief solace of my life. I was early put in possession of a fortune amounting to much more than what some people would be inclined to call a competence; and being little disposed to business, which, I observed, tended often to mar as well as mend a fortune, I resolved to lead a quiet life, free from bustle and ambition. Some circumstances preventing my marrying when young, I have lived to acquire the name and renown of an *old bachelor*, in which honourable situation, I am kept in countenance by my sister Deborah, aged fifty-and-five, who, for reasons best known to herself, has very honestly earned the name of *old maid*.

People, in general, I know, are very apt to exercise a fund of wit at the expence of old bachelors and old maids. They consider us as a very idle and useless kind of people. They even reproach us for being such fools as to give up all the comforts and pleasures of the matrimonial state for no reason in the world that they can discover. Without entering with them into any controversy upon the subject, I shall only hint, that as they *do* assert that we wilfully forego the greatest comforts and pleasures of life, they ought to give us some credit for our forbearance. The man who rejects a pleasure that is within his reach may honestly claim the praise of self-denial. Deborah, indeed, is not disposed to argue so philosophically upon the subject. Depending more upon the matter of fact, she argues that she had many lovers, and that she rejected them; but this was not, I apprehend, so much from any very violent aversion to matrimony, as from a confidence in the duration of her privilege of choosing. She had a notion, which very sensible women unthinkingly indulge, that beauty was not of a perishable nature, and that lovers would not be wanting whenever she should be disposed to make a decisive choice. But, alas! these happy days are fled, and she is now convinced of the truth of many an old proverb then repeated to her, about the neglect of good offers, about being over nice, and about making hay while the sun shines, &c.

But whatever may be our mortifications from having let slip the golden opportunity of connubial happiness, and from being branded with the odious epithets of old bachelor and old maid, I can assure you we would consent to bear all those with proper resignation, if another epithet were not unfortunately tacked to our names, which is the cause of much more mischief. I mean, sir, that Deborah is an old *aunt*, and I am an old *uncle*! We have three brothers who have exactly half-a-dozen children a piece; and as my sister's fortune and mine, from the moderation of our expences, must be daily accumulating, we are eyed by the whole family in a manner, which I need not very particularly describe to one who knows the world. Were you, indeed, to see the respect with which we are treated by our numerous nieces and nephews,

you would envy us the happineſs of being ſo beloved. But if you knew as much as we do, you would at once perceive the vaſt diſtance there is between reſpect and affection.

I know no ſituation more humiliating than that of a man, who knows that he is looked up to upon account of his wealth only; who knows what a paltry conſideration that is; and whoſe relations ſhow him reſpect and attention merely that he may repay it by leaving them his whole fortune. Yet ſuch is the ſituation of moſt unmarried aunts and uncles. And this ſituation is rendered particularly diſagreeable, if the ſaid aunts and uncles ſhould preſume upon their years and experience, ſo far as to find fault with the conduct of their young relatives, be that conduct ever ſo abſurd or pernicious. Then directly comes the proverb relating to 'bachelors' wives, and old maids' children.' Now, ſir, if I choſe ſeriouſly to reſent this uncharitableneſs, I could prove beyond all power of contradiction, that more children have been ruined by their fathers and mothers, than ever were, in any degree, injured by their uncles and aunts. I could prove, moreover, that paternal affection, when not moderated by wiſdom, reflection, and ſome experience, is downright cruelty; and that indulgence, in nine caſes out of ten, is warranted neither by prudence nor neceſſity. But I wave theſe conſiderations, and proceed with my own caſe.

It does ſo happen that Deborah (who has the notion that, although ſhe never bore children, ſhe may know how to govern them) will frequently interfere in the management of her nieces; and I muſt confeſs that ſhe does hold ſome opinions upon this ſubject, which are, in the preſent age, to ſpeak in plain terms, both heterodox and damnable. For example, ſhe oppoſed their going to a boarding-ſchool, where young ladies of quality *only* are educated. That is pretty tolerable for a ſpecimen: but farther, ſhe maintains that three or four plays in a ſeaſon, with an opera, and a concert or two, are quite ſufficient for young ladies of the rank of her nieces. She alſo inſinuates, that it is a very improper thing to detain them for three or four months together from church, under the pretence of viſiting in the country on Sundays. Theſe, you muſt allow, are very unpleaſant doctrines, and cannot but give great offence to ſmart, ſprightly girls, who are educated *genteely* and *properly*. Deborah, however, is ſo hardened in hereſy, that ſhe has preſumed even to find fault with ſome parts of their dreſs, although perfectly faſhionable, and has uttered ſentiments on naked boſoms, which I am afraid to repeat upon paper, leſt I ſhould ſhock the delicacy of your female readers.

Little reaſon, certainly, have *I* to find fault with this venerable ſpinſter, who muſt myſelf acknowledge with all the ſhame of a diſappointed reformer, that I am not a ſound believer in the ſyſtem adopted in the caſe of my *nephews*. Often have I ventured to doubt the propriety of placing boys of fourteen or ſixteen on their own horſes, with money in their pockets, to ride about the vicinity of the metropolis from Saturday to Monday. Often have I even *debated*, and perhaps with ſome warmth, whether a tavern be a proper place for perſons of their years; and I have dared to prophecy, that a time will come when parents will repent having boaſted of their children's remarkable proficiency at cards, the graceful elegance of their minuet-ſtep, and the lucky bets they made at Aſcot races. And, what ſums up the whole of my iniquity is, that I cannot hear theſe things often repeated, without diſguſt; and you know, ſir, that what we cannot hear without diſguſt, we are apt to reprobate without gentleneſs. The conſequence is, that our young relations are particularly cautious not to come near their aunt and uncle upon certain occaſions, 'becauſe you know, Jack or Tom, *he* will only make a piece of work about it,

it, and your *old* aunt will be in her *tantrums* again.'

But then, ſir, they are greatly puzzled about one thing, and that is, with them, the one thing needful. Our money—Our money, *muſt poſitively not go out of the family*. There is the rub. Outward decency and reſpect muſt, therefore, be preſerved; and, accordingly, we receive many a very cordial invitation to viſit our brothers' and and ſiſters' families, 'when they have no company.' All our invitations are couched in the moſt familiar ſtyle of a pot-luck, or family-dinner. This is the moſt uncomfortable of all our meetings, from the conſtraint our preſence evidently impoſes upon them, firſt, to refrain from a behaviour which they think faſhionable; and ſecondly, to put on an appearance of attachment, which they can with the greateſt difficulty ſupport. The children, not yet adepts in cunning, or not ſufficiently aware of the danger they run by offending us, will now and then betray the family ſentiments in a very awkward manner. For this they are ſmartly checked by the mother, with an expreſſion of aſtoniſhment, 'where they could have learned ſuch words as *Old Square Toes!*' And ſurely, ſir, ſuch words make no part of Mr. Locke's innate ideas; they muſt come by imitation. It was but laſt winter, we loſt a near and valuable relation. On our return from the funeral, while we were expatiating on the virtues of the deceaſed, and Mrs. Thomas Old-ſtyle, my ſecond brother's wife, was ſhedding a flood of tears to his memory, in bounced her youngeſt daughter, in deep mourning, with 'mamma, our maſquerade dreſſes are come!' A diſcharge of muſquetry into the windows could not have occaſioned greater confuſion, nor if every ſhot had taken effect, could have produced a more dead ſilence. During their confuſion, I took my leave; and next night this family of heart-felt mourners appeared as a group of dancing gypſies, or ſome ſuch characters, at the Opera-houſe. I was afterward informed, that hopes were entertained that my deafneſs had been aggravated by a cold, and that *perhaps* I had not heard what the imprudent girl had uttered. In juſtice to her, however, I muſt ſay that I ſat ſo in the room that ſhe could not ſee me when ſhe entered, and therefore ſhe only committed one of thoſe miſtakes to which the moſt prudent of us are liable. I ventured, ſome time after this affair, to hint my diſpleaſure at it, but I was ſilenced by an argument which, I muſt confeſs, it was not in the power of logic to withſtand; I was told, as an irrefragable anſwer to all my objections, that 'it was the laſt maſquerade of the ſeaſon, and there would not be another *ſoon!*'

In ſhort, ſuch are the ſtrange and heretical doctrines maintained by Deborah and me, and ſuch the abſolute neceſſity of our relations *keeping well* with us, that their families are formed into committees of ſecrecy, and I really believe they ſwear every new ſervant not to divulge to *us*, any part of the public or private acts of the family. But ſecrecy, where a number are concerned, is not very practicable, and it is not good to be too ſecure. A few days ago, one of my nieces called upon me with a companion of hers. I made them as welcome as I could *in my way*, and my niece was profuſe in her tender attentions, and actually preſented me with a pair of garters which ſhe had bought at the almſhouſes near Margate. So kind a mark of remembrance did not go without its reward, and as I am eaſily ſoftened by little things, I wiſhed to efface all paſt matters from my mind. On their departure, the companion, I ſuppoſe, had accidentally dropt the following note, which, although open, I would not have read, if I had not by a glance of the eye, obſerved a word or two which ſeemed to apply to me. It relates to a viſit paid me ſome weeks ago.

'Dear

'Dear Maria,

'I am ſorry I cannot meet you before nine o'clock. The *old put* was at our houſe a week ago, and looked ſo *glum* about ſomething, that my mother wiſhed I would drink tea with him, and put him in good humour. But I ſhall make a very ſhort ſtay, for I am ſure I ſhall have a headach, and be with you before the firſt *rubber* is out.' I am, &c.

E. OLDSTYLE.

'P. S. I hope Deborah *Cruſty* will not be there.' Lord-a-mercy on me between them.

Accidents, like the above, have thrown in my way more of theſe proofs of their tenderneſs and attachment, and I reſerve them for the day of retribution. In the mean time, as the publication of this letter will ſerve to convince them that the *old put* is not deaf, nor the *old cat* blind, I am willing to try what a conſciouſneſs of their own deceitful practices may effect, and from the ſincerity of their ſhame, or meanneſs of their confeſſions, I ſhall be able to decide whether they ſhall ever have occaſion to look up to Deborah or myſelf, as aunt and uncle, in any thing elſe than *name*.

Alas! ſir, the injury done to us is ſmall. We may be deceived into a fondneſs for their children, and that fondneſs may prompt us to bequeath to them our fortunes. *There* all the injury ends with regard to us; and it is no crime to be deceived. The crime, and a great one, is to form in young minds a ſyſtem of fraud and falſehood, which contaminates the heart, and will render them dutiful to their parents, no longer than their parents ſubſerve to their follies. Let them reflect on this and be happy—if they can. I am, ſir, &c.

THEOPHILUS OLDSTYLE.

Further REMARKS *on a* LEADING SENTIMENT *in Dr.* JOHNSON'S RAMBLER *.

WHEN unſettled principles fall in with a conſtitutional gloominess of mind, it is no wonder the *tædium vitæ* ſhould gain daily ſtrength, till it puſhes a man to ſeek relief againſt this moſt deſperate of all diſtempers, from the point of a ſword, or the bottom of a river. But to learn to accommodate our taſte to that portion of happineſs, which Providence has ſet before us is, of all the leſſons of philoſophy ſurely the moſt neceſſary. High and exquiſite gratifications are not conſiſtent with the appointed meaſures of humanity; and, perhaps, if we would fully enjoy the reliſh of our being, we ſhould rather conſider the miſeries we eſcape, than too nicely examine the intrinſic worth of the happineſs we poſſeſs. It is at leaſt the buſineſs of true wiſdom to bring together every circumſtance, which may light up cheerfulneſs in the mind; and though we muſt be inſenſible if it ſhould perpetually burn with the ſame unvaried brightneſs, yet prudence ſhould preſerve it as a ſacred fire, which is never to be totally extinguiſhed.

I am perſuaded that this diſguſt of life, is frequently indulged out of a principle of mere vanity. It is eſteemed as a mark of uncommon refinement, and as placing a man above the ordinary level of his ſpecies, to ſeem ſuperior to the vulgar feelings of happineſs. True good ſenſe, however, moſt certainly conſiſts, not in deſpiſing, but in managing, our ſtock of life to the beſt advantage; as a cheerful acquieſcence in the meaſures of Providence, is one of the ſtrongeſt ſymptoms of a well-conſtituted mind. Self-wearineſs is a circumſtance that ever attends folly; and to contemn our being, is the greateſt, and indeed

* See page 347.

the

the peculiar infirmity of human nature. It is a noble ſentiment which Cicero puts into the mouth of Cato, in his treatiſe upon old age; 'Non lubet mihi deplorare vitam, quod multi, et ii docti, ſæpe fecerunt; neque me vixiſſe pœnitet: quoniam ita vixi, ut non fruſtra me natum exiſtimem.'

It is in the power, indeed, but of a very ſmall proportion of mankind, to act the ſame glorious part that afforded ſuch high ſatisfaction to this diſtinguiſhed patriot; but the number is yet far more inconſiderable of thoſe, who cannot, in any ſtation, ſecure to themſelves a ſufficient fund of complacency to render life juſtly valuable. Who is it that is placed out of the reach of the higheſt of all gratifications, thoſe of the generous affections; and that cannot provide for his own happineſs by contributing ſomething to the welfare of others? As this diſeaſe of the mind generally breaks out with moſt violence in thoſe, who are ſuppoſed to be endowed with a greater delicacy of taſte and reaſon, than is the uſual allotment of their fellow-creatures; one may aſk them, whether there is any ſatiety in the purſuits of uſeful knowledge? or if any one can ever be weary of benefiting mankind? Will not the fine arts ſupply a laſting feaſt to the mind? Or can there be wanting a pleaſurable employment, ſo long as there remains even one advantageous truth to be diſcovered or confirmed? To complain that life has no joys, while there is a ſingle creature whom we can relieve by our bounty, aſſiſt by our counſels, or enliven by our preſence, is to lament the loſs of that which we poſſeſs, and is juſt as rational as to die of thirſt with the cup in our hands. But the misfortune is, when a man is ſettled into a habit of receiving all his pleaſures from the mere ſelfiſh indulgencies, he wears out of his mind the reliſh of every nobler enjoyment, at the ſame time that his animal powers are growing more languid by repetition. It is no wonder, therefore, if he ſhould fill up the meaſure of his gratifications, long before he has completed the circle of his duration; and either wretchedly ſit down the remainder of his days in diſcontent, or raſhly throw them up in deſpair.

ALTER.

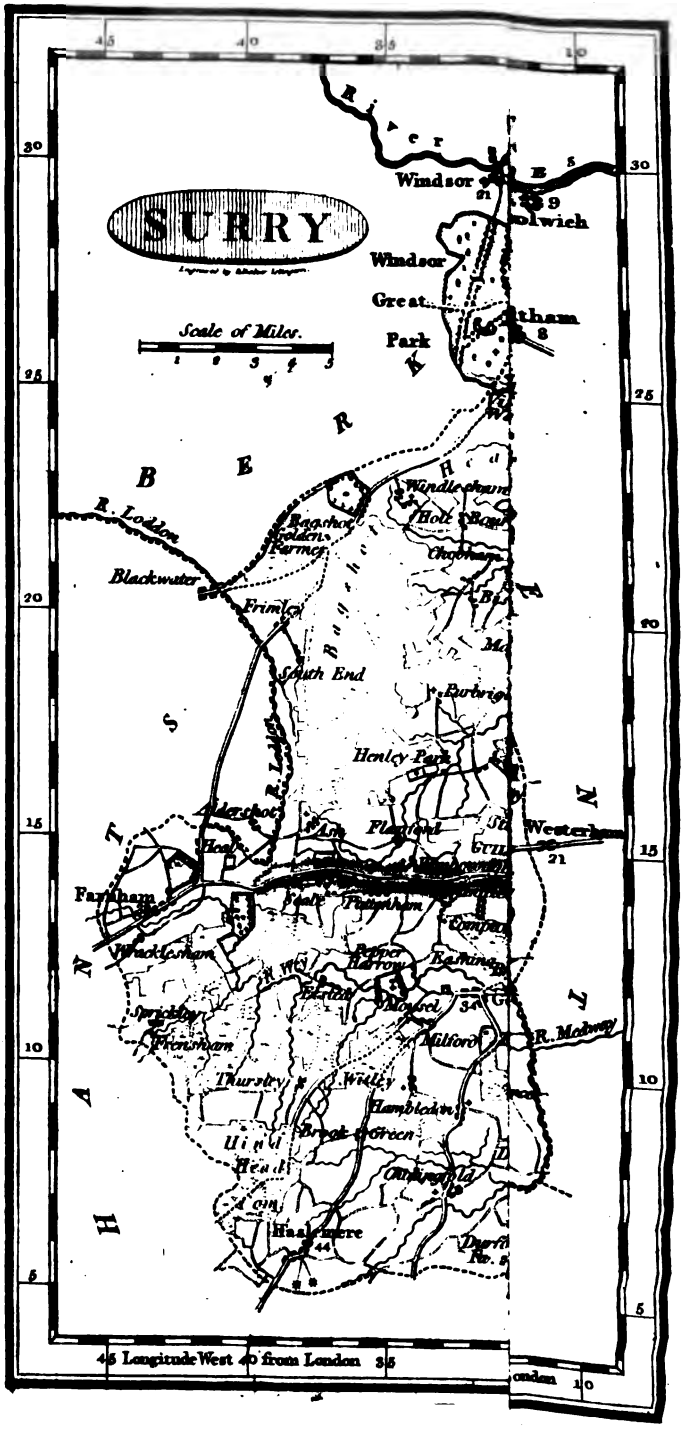
ANECDOTE *of* LOUIS XIV.

THE boundleſs ambition which diſtinguiſhed the character of Louis the fourteenth, during his long and eventful reign, has ever ſince expoſed his memory to the eager reproaches of philoſophers and patriots in every enlightened part of Europe. Yet no human character is perfectly vicious: this prince, who could ſpread miſery in the groſs, was apprehenſive of giving pain in the little incidents of life; and the following anecdote exhibits a delicacy of feeling, not common among the great and powerful. As he was one day ſitting in the midſt of ſome of his courtiers, he undertook to tell them a ſtory which ſhould made them all die with laughing. Notwithſtanding his promiſe, however, the concluſion was very inſipid, and produced only a forced ſmile on the countenances of his hearers. As ſoon as he had finiſhed ſpeaking, the prince d'Armagnac happened to leave the room; whereupon Louis reſumed his ſtory, with informing thoſe who were preſent, that he recollected in the middle of it, that, in the humour on which it turned, there was ſomething which might give pain to the nobleman that had juſt left the company; but that, now he was abſent, he would try again. His ſtory, which was exceedingly diverting, had then its full effect upon the auditors.

METEO-

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, November 1794.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	Hyg.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	8	29,84	52,5	55,5	60,5	3	WSW 1	: more cloudy
	2	29,82	56	58	56,5	4	WSW 2	. fine eve: little rain
2	8	29,70	44,5	56	60,5	f	W 1	: much rain
	2	29,54	51,5	57	60	6	WSW 1	much rain: chiefly fair
3	8	29,13	41	51	57,5	f	WSW 1	. chiefly gentle rain: fine
	2	29,20	46	55	57	3	W 1	hazy. bright night
4	8	29,22	43	52	66	3	SW 1	foggy. cloudy. much rain
	2	29,04	49,5	53,5	63	5	SW 2	rain at times: ſtormy
5	8	29,12	54	55	60	5	SSW 4	little rain: ſtormy ſhower
	2	29,13	54,5	57	62,5	6	SSW 4	much rain. leſs wind at night and chiefly fair
6	8	29,46	51	56,5	61	h	SW 1	little wet. much rain
	2	29,45	50,5	56,5	57,5	6	SW 2	continual rain: chiefly fair
7	8	29,49	43	53,5	60	2	W 1	foggy. wind S: much rain
F	2	29,43	51	54,5	62	5	SSE 1	rain. fine and ſhowers
8	8	29,52	46	54,5	57	2	N 2	. wind SW
	2	29,66	50	54,5	57,5	3	WSW 1	
9	8	29,94	37	50	60	f	W 0	. leſs foggy and few clouds
	2	29,96	45	52	58	3	W 0	foggy
10	8	30,10	39,5	50	61	f	SW 1	. wind S and fine
	2	30,03	50,5	53	56,5	4	S 1	. more cloudy. little rain at times
11	8	29,89	53,5	54	65	h	SW 1	: drizzling
	2	29,92	56,5	56,5	62,5	h	W 1	. fine eve but hazy + little wet
12	8	29,95	48	55	61	h	NW 1	chiefly drizzling: fair
	2	29,95	49,5	56	61	3	NW 1	hazy. clear eve
13	8	29,97	38	50	54	0	NW 1	
	2	30,01	44,5	52	52,5	0	NNW 1	. thick upward at eve. more clear
14	8	30,12	42	51	53,5	f	WNW 1	. more bright and thiniſh clouds
	2	30,14	46,5	52	51,5	4	NNW 1	
15	8	30,02	46	51	62	f	W 0	
	2	30,02	51	53	62,5	f	W 0	
16	8	29,89	50	54	61,5	4	NW 2	. ſhower: fine
	2	29,91	50	55,5	57	3	N 2	. clear night
17	8	30,05	44,5	53	56	f	N 0	
	2	30,05	46	53	56	6	E 1	
18	8	30,01	37,5	47	51	4	ESE 1	. more cloudy
	2	29,92	37,5	47	52,5	5	E 2	: fine
19	8	29,64	33	45	52,5	3	E 2	
	2	29,56	37	45	50	3	E 3	. clear night
20	8	29,32	32,5	42	55	3	E 3	: cloudy. little rain
	2	29,16	38	44	59	5	E 3	. little ſnow. ſhowers: leſs wind and fine
21	8	29,22	45	47	65	3	SSE 1	. ſhower. fine: little wet
	2	29,33	52	59	62	4	S 2	. clear night
22	8	29,69	45	51	64	3	SSE 1	foggy
N	2	29,70	48	53,5	63	3	E 1	very hazy
23	8	29,73	45,5	51,5	60,5	4	ESE 1	
	2	29,69	47	53	65	5	E 1	. rain at times
24	8	29,56	50	53,5	66	f	E 1	. wind S and little rain at times
	2	29,60	53,5	55,5	65,5	3	WSW 1	. cloudy. fine night: little rain
25	8	29,72	49,5	54,5	64	f	WSW 1	. fine. cloudy and rain at times
	2	29,72	52,5	56	62	5	S 1	. little rain: fine
26	8	29,56	46,5	54	58	1	W 1	hazy
	2	29,75	44,5	55	52	1	W 2	hazy. clear night: little rain
27	8	29,70	40,5	50	61	5	SW 1	. fine but hazy
	2	29,87	43,5	54	55	1	W 1	hazy: cloudy
28	8	29,78	41,5	50	55	5	S 2	. chiefly rain and more wind
	2	29,44	48	52	64	5	S 4	rain at times. heavy ſhowers
29	8	29,63	42	52	59	4	SW 2	. fine
	2	29,81	47	53	55,5	1	SW 2	. rain at eve. fine
30	8	29,77	48	52	61	2	SW 1	. cloudy and little rain
	2	29,82	52	54	60,5	6	S 2	very much rain and windy


SURRY
Scale of Miles.
1 2 3 4 5
River
Windsor
Windsor
Great
Park
Windlesham
Bagshot
Golden Farmer
R. Loddon
Blackwater
Frimley
South End
Henley Park
Aldershot
Farnham
Wrecklesham
Pepper Harrow
Eastend
Moysel
Milford
R. Medway
Thursley
Witley
Hambledon
Brook Green
Haslemere
Westerham
Longitude West 40 from London

UNIV. OF MICH.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* November 1794.

THE diſeaſes of this month may be conſidered only as a continuation of thoſe of the former, there was little variation in them, fever of the ſame nature continued to prevail, but was ſtill more frequent, there were no alterations in its ſymptoms, and it rarely proved fatal. Rheumatic affections (particularly of the head and face) were common toward the end of the month, but were in general ſlight and of ſhort duration. Smallpox, excepting that produced by inoculation, was rare.

An Account of SURRY: *With a neat and accurate* MAP *of that County.*

THE county of Surry is bounded on the north by Middleſex and a point of Buckinghamſhire; on the eaſt by Kent; on the ſouth by Suſſex; and on the weſt by Hampſhire and Berks. Its greateſt length is thirty-ſeven miles, and its breadth twenty-ſeven. It lies in the dioceſe of Wincheſter; is divided into thirteen hundreds, containing eleven market-towns (Southwark included) and one hundred and forty pariſhes; and ſends fourteen members to parliament. It is a healthy pleaſant county, on which account many of the nobility and gentry have their ſeats here; and the value of eſtates in it has been advanced, of late years, beyond any other part of England. The ſoil, in the extreme parts, is very different from that in the middle, whence it has been compared to a piece of coarſe cloth with a fine border; for the edge of the county, on all ſides, has a rich ſoil, extremely fruitful in corn and graſs, particularly on the north and weſt, toward the Thames; but it is far otherwiſe in the heart of the county, where are wide tracts of ſandy ground and barren heath, and, in ſome places, long ridges of hills, with warrens of rabbits and parks for deer. However, we meet, here and there, with ſome delightful ſpots interſperſed in the middle of Surry; and it is not to be doubted that a great deal of the waſte ground might, by proper management, be greatly improved.

Banſtead Downs, to the ſouth-weſt of Croydon, are noted for feeding the ſweeteſt mutton. Dyer, deſcribing the ſituations moſt favourable for ſheep, ſays,

Such are the downs of Banſtead, edged with woods
And towery villas. FLEECE.

Near Darking, is Box Hill, ſo called, from being covered with the largeſt box trees in England.

Beſide the products in common with the neighbouring counties, Surry is noted for the fineſt hops near Farnham, and aſparagus at Batterſea; but the large breed of fowls for which Darking is celebrated, are brought from Suſſex.

The principal rivers beſide the Thames (which is the boundary of this county on the north) are the Wey, the Mole, and the Wandle.

The Wey, the principal river next the Thames, riſes in Hampſhire, and after paſſing Guilford, flows into the Thames, near Chertſey. It turns many paper and corn-mills for the uſe of the metropolis, and is thus characteriſed by Pope:

The chalky Wey that rolls a milky wave.
WINDSOR FOREST.

The Mole riſes in the ſouth part of the county, runs north to Darking, and paſſing beneath Box Hill, is generally believed to diſappear in its vicinity, and to riſe again near Leatherhead. Hence Pope calls it

The Sullen Mole that hides his diving flood.
WINDSOR FOREST.

But the fact is, that a tract of ſoft ground, near two miles in length, called the Swallows, in very dry ſeaſons, abſorbs the waſte water in caverns in the ſides of the banks; but not ſo as to prevent a conſtant ſtream from taking its courſe in an open channel above ground, winding round in the vallies from Darking to Leatherhead; though not of that breadth as when it croſſes the road at Mickleham; beyond which, at Burford-bridge, its channel, in very hot ſeaſons, is ſometimes dry. This river, proceeding from Leatherhead to Cobham, enters the Thames at Eaſt Moulſey.

The Wandle, or Vandal, riſes near Carſhalton, and paſſing by Croydon and Merton, enters the Thames at Wandſworth. It is a fine trout ſtream; turns many mills, for the ſervice of various manufactures; and is thus celebrated by Pope:

The blue tranſparent Vandalis appears.
WINDSOR FOREST.

The principal town of this county is the borough of Southwark, which may be conſidered as a part of the metropolis; but the Lent aſſizes are held at Kingſton, and the ſummer aſſizes at Guilford and Croydon alternately.

METHOD *of curing* BUTTER *practiſed in the Pariſh of* Udny, *and its Neighbourhood.*

[From the General View of the Agriculture of the County of Aberdeen; drawn up, for the Conſideration of the Board of Agriculture, by James Anderſon, LL. D.]

THE following mode of curing butter is practiſed by ſome in the pariſh of Udney, and that neighbourhood, with gives to their butter a great ſuperiority above that of others.

Take two parts of the beſt common ſalt, one part of ſugar, and one part of ſaltpetre; beat them up together, and blend the whole completely. Take one ounce of this compoſition for every ſixteen ounces of butter, work it well into the maſs, and cloſe it up for uſe.

I know of no ſimple improvement in economies greater than this is, when compared with the uſual mode of curing butter by means of common ſalt alone. I have ſeen the experiment fairly made, of one part of the butter made at one time being thus cured, and the other part cured with ſalt alone: the difference was inconceivable; I ſhould ſuppoſe that, in any open market, the one would ſell for thirty per cent. more than the other. The butter cured with the mixture appears of a rich marrowy conſiſtence, and fine colour, and never acquires a brittle hardneſs, nor taſtes ſalt; the other is comparatively hard and brittle, approaching more nearly to the appearance of tallow, and is much ſalter to the taſte. I have eat butter cured with the above compoſition, that had been kept three years, and it was as ſweet as at firſt; but it muſt be noted, that butter thus cured requires to ſtand three weeks or a month, before it is begun to be uſed. If it be ſooner opened, the ſalts are not ſufficiently blended with it; and ſometimes the coolneſs of the nitre will then be perceived, which totally diſappears afterward.

The pernicious practice of keeping milk in leaden veſſels, and ſalting butter in ſtone jars, begins to gain ground among ſome of the fine ladies in this county, as well as elſewhere, from an idea of cleanlineſs. The fact is, it is juſt the reverſe of cleanlineſs; for, in the hands of a careful perſon, nothing can be more cleanly than wooden diſhes, but, under the management of a ſlattern, they diſcover the ſecret, which ſtone diſhes indeed do not.

In return, theſe latter communicate to the butter, and the milk, which has been kept in them, a poiſonous quality,

quality, which inevitably proves deſtructive to the human conſtitution. To the prevalence of this practice, I have no doubt, we muſt attribute the frequency of palſies, which begin to prevail ſo much in this kingdom; for the well known effect of the poiſon of lead is, bodily debility, palſy,—death!

On ſome of the favourite SPECTACLES *and* DIVERSIONS *of the* Engliſh.

The following ſatirical Remarks are ſelected from 'The Looker-on,' *a new Series of Periodical Papers, executed, with great Succeſs, in the Manner of* 'The Spectator *.' The Subject of ſome of our faſhionable Amuſements, as well as vulgar Diverſions, is treated in a ſuppoſed Letter from the Prince* Lee Boo *to his Father the King of the* Pelew Iſlands, *and is followed by a humorous Comment by the Editor.*

NUMBER LXXXIV.

Tranſlation of a Letter, written by the late Prince Lee Boo, and intended to have been ſent to his Father, the King of the Pelew Iſlands; in which the ſenſe is, as far as it could be collected, exhibited without regard to his mode of expreſſion, which was incapable of being repreſented in another language.

WHAT I have ſaid to you, beloved ſire, on the politics of this people, has been ſhort and ſuperficial, becauſe you have taught me to ſpeak with diffidence and reſerve on matters of this high nature; and becauſe the laws by which this country is governed are too numerous and profound to be haſtily learned. Their cuſtoms and manners alſo require a longer reſidence than I have yet made among them, to be clearly comprehended, and fairly judged. Our prejudices do not ſuffer us to reflect that theſe ought always to be conſidered with a reference to the climate, wants, and civil condition of the country. As experience ripens my judgment, expect from me better remarks on all theſe particulars: at preſent, accept, with your uſual indulgence, ſuch obſervations as have occurred to me; they will at leaſt ſerve to mark the ſtages of my improvement, (as you compare thoſe of different dates together.

I ſhall firſt of all preſent you with a ſketch of their amuſements, in which you told me, in our laſt converſation, before I mounted into the great floating-caſtle, I ſhould ſee a vaſt deal of the temper and natural character of the people I was about to viſit. You will ſcarcely credit it, but I aſſure you I make continual miſtakes between their amuſements and their buſineſs, and ſometimes imagine they are purſuing ſome ſport, when in reality they are occupied about objects of a ſerious and ſolemn nature: for, notwithſtanding this people are capable of ſuch ſtupendous efforts of art and ſcience, they have a way of mixing a littleneſs of character with their grandeur of ſpirit, qualities that are held incompatible with us; and thus is produced a ſort of farcical and ridiculous diſproportion. This equivocal appearance of many of their proceedings will doubtleſs fill my letters with numerous errors; but I ſhall take care to rectify them as I advance in my acquaintance with the ſubject, ſo as in the end to communicate ſome advantage to yourſelf, and conſequently to my dear country, from theſe opportunities which I owe to your indulgence.

To begin, then, you muſt know

* In three volumes, 12mo. under the aſſumed name of the Rev. Simon Olive-Branch, A. M; the real author being the Rev. William Roberts, A. M. F. S. A. fellow of Corpus Chriſti College, Oxford.

that the other day I was carried to a very large room, in which they told me was aſſembled the great council of the nation: but I preſently ſaw through it, and perceived clearly that it was a kind of game in imitation of a ſenate; and, indeed, it was performed ſo well, that had it not been for a great deal of laughing, coughing ſcraping and hallooing, it might have been impoſed upon me for a real aſſembly of the great men of the nation, met to debate on its moſt important intereſts; for here and there, there was a vaſt deal of animation aſſumed, and eloquence diſplayed, and even moments of gravity, ſuch as characteriſe all our meetings for the good of our country. My ignorance of the language diſqualified me for participating in the joke; but from the eagerneſs and perſeverance with which it was purſued, I could plainly perceive that it was very entertaining to thoſe engaged.'

The following night I was taken to an exhibition, called a maſquerade, which I only mention here as a contraſt to the humourous ſcene I was preſent at the day before, ſince it ſeems to be more properly a ceremony than an amuſement; I mention it, too, as one inſtance, among a very few, in which this generous people have uſed a reſerve toward me in reſpect to the explanation of their manners and cuſtoms; for they would feign have perſuaded me that this maſquerade, as it is called, was a mere diverſion among the young men and women of quality, while nothing could be more clear than that it was a religious celebration. I can conceive it ſo natural to laugh at the practices of other countries, eſpecially thoſe which appertain to their religion, that I muſt own I think them entirely excuſable for veiling thoſe rites and myſteries, for the preſent, from my eyes, until I ſhall have worn off my firſt prejudices. There was ſomething ſplendidly ſolemn in this whole ceremony; and if there was any interruption to the gravity of the ſcene, it was occaſioned by ſome ſtrange cries and whimſical contortions, which, however ridiculous they appear to the inhabitants of other countries, I have no doubt make a very ſerious impreſſion on the boſoms of the natives, as being in honour of the different deities they adore. There was a vaſt variety of dreſſes, which I conceived to be repreſentative of particular orders and deſcriptions, who thus, through the medium of one of their fraternity, offered their reſpective adoration; while the prieſts wore all the ſame clothing, called by the natives a domino. I ſay I conceived all this, becauſe a certain awe and timidity with which I felt myſelf inſpired, made me forbear any queſtions that might ſeem to reſult from impertinent curioſity.

There is one circumſtance reſpecting this country, which, to my ideas, is altogether unaccountable; and that is, the great leiſure they have for idleneſs, in the midſt of ſuch proofs of their labour and ingenuity as overpower the imagination. It ſurpriſes me the more, my beloved father, becauſe you know I have been accuſtomed to ſee every individual uſefully employed in my own country, it being one of your favourite maxims, that the happineſs of your people requires it. Thou, who art a mighty prince, art likewiſe the beſt workman in thy dominions; for who can make hatchets to equal thine? But here the great men can bear to ſit whole days unemployed, and will eat their food with inſtruments which other hands have formed, and live in houſes with the very principle of whoſe conſtruction they are little acquainted. From all this muſt reſult a vaſt deal of idle time to be filled up with mere amuſements; and it is aſtoniſhing how many theſe people have imagined, of which we have no conception. They are extremely fond of dancing; a paſtime which implies much leſs exertion with them than with us, and conſiſts chiefly in eating, drinking, and wearing fine ornaments. They

extend this accompliſhment even to the brute creation; for I obſerve that their dogs are taught to dance in the ſtreets of the capital; ſo much leiſure time have Engliſhmen to beſtow upon theſe diverſions.

Their hunting is of various kinds, but the principal object of it is a poor little timid animal they call a hare: I have not yet ſeen it, but I ſhall hope to be enabled to ſend you a deſcription of it, together with an account of the birds and beaſts of the country. I cannot, however, forbear mentioning one remarkable property aſcribed to it, that of loving to be hunted, although its entertainment conſiſts ſolely in being torn to pieces by dogs; I was aſſured, however, of this by a perſon who is very fond of the chace. Another ſpecies of hunting, in which apparently they take great delight, is that of a huge animal, called in their language *ox*; and this takes place often in the ſtreets of the city, to the great terror of all who do not mix in the ſport. There are no dogs uſed in this kind of hunting, at leaſt I could perceive none; indeed, I was hurried away by my kind protectors ſo quick when the beaſt approached, that I could ſee but little of their mode of proceeding, though I beheld enough to make me wonder at ſuc a predilection in a people who are in a thouſand reſpects ſo civiliſed and ſo humane.

In my future account of the beaſts of this country I ſhall ſay a great deal to you by and by about a beautiful animal, called the horſe, which will with great eaſe and celerity bear a man from place to place upon his back. They make this animal conducive to their ſport in an amuſement they term *racing*, in which two or more of them are made to run one againſt the other, with men on their backs, and wounded all the way with ſharp ſpikes. I cannot help wondering how good men can be pleaſed with ſuch ſights; for it ſeems an unnatural and ungenerous conteſt when two animals are urged beyond their ſtrength, and forced on by violent treatment. I am ſorry to find fault with a people to whom we have all, and myſelf particularly, been ſo greatly obliged; ſo that I am drawn oppoſite ways by truth and gratitude; but then again I conſider that nothing is ſo ſacred as truth, and that, after all, my greateſt gratitude is due to my father and my king, who requires that I ſhould always tell him the truth.

The other day I obſerved two men in a field, ſtripped as naked as it is the cuſtom with us, and beating one another till they were covered with blood, for the diverſion of an infinite number of ſpectators, who ſeemed to be delighted with the ſcene. Though our enemies taken in war have often been ſlaughtered before my eyes, yet I could ſo ill bear to ſee this fury between countrymen, and, as I was told, between men who had never quarrelled, and all to amuſe their fellow creatures, that I turned away my eyes, and was ſorrowful all the reſt of the day. It added a good deal to my chagrin, to obſerve in my way home two dogs very furiouſly engaged; and while they were miſerably tearing one another to pieces, a vaſt number of people gathering round them, and provoking their fury by clapping their hands, and a thouſand ſavage geſticulations.

They have alſo another ſport here, of a piece with ſome which I have already mentioned, termed by the natives cock-fighting; though I am told that this amuſement is a little on the decline. The entertainment conſiſts in contemplating a very fierce combat between two large birds of great beauty, and ſignal uſe to mankind, which they arm with inſtruments that enable them to inflict dreadful wounds on each other, till one of them expires in conſiderable torture. I am ſorry to add that I have ſeen ſome poltroons amuſe themſelves with throwing ſticks at this noble bird, which, for that purpoſe, they had confined by the leg. Their diverſions within doors are in ſuch great variety,

that

that it would rob more important objects of all my time, if I were to think of describing them to you: beside which, I have only glanced at the greater part of them; for my dear friends here think I am more profitably employed when I am improving myself in the language, or am acquiring knowledge, which may turn to the future benefit of your majesty's people.

Their principal amusement in their own houses appears to be derived from a certain number of thin substances, spotted in a certain manner with different colours, and which, though they allow that they gain no ideas from them, will entertain them during the time that your majesty would take to repel an invasion of your dominions. I am prejudiced against this amusement, because I have observed it operate very unpleasantly on the countenances of those who are engaged in it; and I have seen some very handsome persons, while playing at cards, entirely stripped of what rendered them before so amiable in my eyes. They have not yet made me comprehend how it can be; but they tell it to me as an undoubted truth, that oftentimes men lose every thing that is valuable to them in this amusement, if it deserve that name, after we are told of this its destructive tendency; so that be assured, beloved father, I will not attempt to acquire so pernicious a talent. But the pastime of which this great people seems most enamoured, is what their language denominates a *play*. I have not yet been present at one, so that I cannot pretend to give you any account of it; but as far as I can understand such descriptions as have been given me of it, it is a powerful engine, whether it be used on the side of vice or virtue. I will send you a full account of the first which I shall be permitted to attend; but I fear that the silence observed about this amusement, by my dearest friends, is on the account of the neglect into which this its moral efficacy may have sunk in the present times.

The other day I was present at a diversion which at first wore a formidable appearance, but soon turned out to be a very insignificant spectacle.—A number of persons, armed with weapons, which they call bows and arrows, and which serve to the same purpose pretty nearly as our slings and spears, met together on a spacious plain. The professed object of their meeting is to send their arrows into a painted piece of wood, which they denominate a target; but not more than a small number of those that came with that pretence, partook at all in the diversion; so that, to make a display before a great number of the women of the country, of their persons and decorations, looks to be, with the major part, the real object which assembles them. I could not easily be convinced that all this noise and parade was to answer no political end; at one time it occurred to me, that it was a sort of divination by which heaven was consulted in the appointment to certain posts of eminence, and that the generals of armies, and captains of expeditions, were chosen in this kind of lottery; at another, that some secret terrors of an invasion had begun to spread in the country, and that this martial exercise was meant as preparative to a vigorous defence. I was at length, however, persuaded that they were a very peaceable set of people, and that all this uproar proceeded only from an outrageous love of flourish and show, and, in fact, was nothing more than an apology for a feather in their hats. I was a little afraid at first of coming near them; but, upon trial, I found them so familiarly and tamely disposed, that one of them suffered me to take his hat off his head, and strutted to and fro apparently in high good humour, while I admired his feather. There is always a great gathering from all parts to see this spectacle; and the ladies, for whose amusement the whole is designed, appear extravagantly pleased with beholding their husbands and relatives so cheaply metamorphosed into champion

plons and warriors. The inoffenſiveneſs, however, and the pampered good-humour which appeared in their countenances, does not ſuffer one long to couple with them the idea of any thing that is terrible; and I much queſtion, ſuppoſing theſe men had been caſt on your majeſty's dominions, inſtead of thoſe to whom we are ſo much indebted, whether you would have found their aſſiſtance ſo ſerviceable in your battles.

I have only preſented a very ſmall part of the letter of this extraordinary young prince to his father, as a ſpecimen of his manner of contemplating ſome of our favourite ſpectacles and diverſions. We muſt allow a great deal to the prejudices of education, and the fallacies ariſing from a very partial experience in the wants and ways of mankind. The contempt which he inſinuates for many of our prime amuſements, betrays theſe deficiencies to which I have adverted, while the candid muſt allow that his narrowneſs of thinking is frequently coupled with expanſion of feeling. What he ſays about our dancing, for inſtance, flows from his ignorance of the thouſand adventitious pleaſures of which that diverſion is ſuſceptible, and which renders harmony, grace, and activity, the leaſt important part of it. Had his friends been wiſe enough to take him to Mrs. B—'s aſſemblies, he might there have ſeen experimentally exhibited, on a very broad ſcale, thoſe nicer movements and finer operations by which, at theſe diverſions, the grand machinery of intrigue and ſeduction is carried on.

His objections to gaming diſcover the ſame limited range of obſervation. He does not conſider how much it corrects a hoarding principle among a people; exerciſes the ſentiment of honour, promotes circulation of money, levels enormous fortunes, and confirms the chaſtity of the ladies by familiariſing it to temptations. The hare itſelf is the beſt advocate for hunting, by loving it to diſtraction, as is clearly proved by her being found ſo often near a kennel of hounds, and by the leaping and capering ſhe diſplays when ſhe finds herſelf in the midſt of the pack. Her imitation of the cry of a child is a pretty playful fancy of hers that adds much to the humour of the ſcene.

If it do not appear ſo decidedly that the ox loves to be hunted by the butchers, we can only anſwer that we cannot help his want of taſte. The cock is a moſt mettleſome animal, and is never ſo gratified as when called upon to give proofs of his courage; and our arming him with ſteel weapons, ſhews our reſpect for his feelings, reaſoning by a fair analogy from our own ſentiments of honour, which regard it as much more dignified to fight with ſwords than with hands. If we encourage dogs to fight, ample compenſation is made to them by teaching them to dance; and if they will aſpire to be accompliſhed cavaliers, it is fair they ſhould have a little rough work into the bargain.

Horſes, pigs, and many other animals, are fully rewarded for the ſufferings they undergo, by the very ſuperior education of late years they are in habits of receiving from the liberality and humanity of my countrymen. I am prevented, by want of room, from ſaying a great deal more on this ſubject; and have no doubt but that all our ſports may in this manner, and on ſimilar grounds, be ſhewn to be both reaſonable and humane.

Inſtead of a comment upon what the prince obſerves of plays, I ſhall report the anſwer given by a young critic to the author of an opera, that was on the verge of being rejected, who begged his advice as to the beſt manner of ſupporting it: 'Lengthen your dances, and ſhorten your petticoats.' Our plays are now dwindling into operas, and demand the ſame kind of ſupport. A minuet or a ballad are, for the moſt part, their principal dependences.

I am

I am very angry with the young prince for undervaluing ſo noble a ſcience as that of archery, and would undertake to write a whole volume in vindication of it. It gives an appetite, by leading men out into a fine ſharp air; it is of benefit to the body of tailors; it is not only a harmleſs diverſion, but it keeps people out of miſchief; it is expenſive, and therefore genteel; it pleaſes the faireſt part of the creation; it ſupports ſomething like the ſpirit of chivalry, exempted from its dangers; it occaſions a great deal of eating and drinking, and in ſome degree tends to correct the parſimality of nature, by affording to the leaſt gifted of her ſons an opportunity of making a figure. Our great poet Milton conſidered archery as ſo dignified an exerciſe, that one of the fineſt paſſages of his Paradiſe Regained is the deſcription of the Parthian Bowmen. I ſhall make a preſent of it to the proficients in this ſport, accompanied with an imitation of it, to ſhew its eaſy applicability to our modern archers.

" He look'd, and ſaw what numbers numberleſs
The city gates our-pour'd. Light-armed troops
In coats of mail and military pride;

In mail their horſes clad, yet, fleet and ſtrong,
Prauncing, their riders bore; the flow'r and choice
Of many provinces, from bound to bound;
From Arachoſia, from Candaor eaſt,

And Margiana, to th' Hyrcanian cliffs

Of Caucaſus, and dark Iberion dales;

From Atropatia, and the neighbouring plains
Of Adiabene, Media, and the ſouth

Of Suſiana to Balſara's haven.

He ſaw them in their forms of battle rang'd,
How quick they wheel'd, and flying behind them ſhot
Sharp fleet of arrowy ſhowers againſt the face
Of their purſuers, and overcame by flight.
The field all iron-caſt a gleaming brown,

Nor wanted clouds of foot, nor at each horn
Cuiraſſiers all in ſteel for ſtanding fight,
Chariots and elephants indors'd with tow'rs
Of archers, nor of lab'ring pioneers
A multitude, with ſpades and axes arm'd,

To lay hills plain, fell woods, or vallies clear;
Or where plain was, raiſe hill, or overlay,

He look'd, and ſaw what numbers numberleſs
The city gates out-pour'd, ſweet ſmirking troops,
In coats of green, and namby pamby pride,
With belts their ſhoulders hung, yet broad and round,
Rattling their quivers bore, the flow'r and choice
From Brompton to Whitechapel, bound to bound;
From Bucklerſbury, from Queen-Ann-ſtreet-Eaſt,
And Radcliff Highway, to the diſtant verge
Of Dead Man's row, and deep Cold Harbour lane;
From Piccadilly, and the neighbouring ſtreets
Of Marybone, Shug-lane, and, north and ſouth,
From Mother Redcap's down to Puddle Dock.
He ſaw them in their forms of battle rang'd,
How ſpruce they wheel'd, and, ogling round them, ſhot
Their arrowy vengeance 'gainſt the butt beſieg'd,
Or routed target, and o'ercame by might.
The field all feather'd, wav'd with plumy pride,
Nor wanted crowds, rout, riot, duſt, and din,
And boxers all in buff for ſtanding fight;
Whiſkeys, and bakers carts uppil'd with hoſts
Of gapers, nor of lab'ring pickpockets
A multitude, with hooks and forceps arm'd,
To lay fobs waſte, cut ſtrings or pockets clear,
Or, where purſe was, leave nought, of over-reach

With bridges, rivers proud, as with a yoke.
Mules after theſe, camels and dromedaries.
And waggons fraught with utenſils of war.
Such forces met not, nor ſo wide a camp,
When Agrican with all his northern pow'rs
Beſieg'd Albracca, as romances tell,
The city of Gallophrone, from whence to win
The faireſt of her ſex, Angelica,
His daughter, ſought by many proweſt knights,
Both Paynim, and the peers of Charlemagne."

With cunning, Cockney-ſparks as with a nooſe.
Gigs after theſe, hackneys, and pleaſure carts,
And barrows fraught with gingerbread and cakes.
Such forces met not, nor ſo wide a camp,
When tough Maguano, with his ſtout allies,
Fell on the batter'd Knight, as Butler tells,
In the city of Brentford, hoping thus to win
The ſmiles of Trulla, blowſieſt of her ſex;
His miſtreſs, ſought by many broadback'd blades,
Both gipſeys and gigantic grenadiers.

PARTICULARS *of the* POLITICAL CHARACTER, GENIUS, MANNERS, EMPLOYMENTS, *and* DIVERSIONS *of the* PEOPLE *of* NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

[From the Third Volume of Belknap's Hiſtory of New-Hampſhire.]

IT is much leſs difficult and dangerous to deſcribe the character of the dead than of the living; but in ſo great a variety as the inhabitants of a whole ſtate, there cannot but be ſome general traits which all muſt allow to be juſt; and which, however diſagreeable if applied particularly, yet will not be diſreliſhed by any, when delivered only in general terms. It is not my wiſh to exaggerate either the virtues or defects of my countrymen; but as an American, I have a right to ſpeak the truth concerning them, if my language be within the limits of decency.

The genius and character of a community are in ſome meaſure influenced by their government and political connexions. Before the revolution, the people of the different parts of New-Hampſhire had but little connexion with each other. They might have been divided into three claſſes; thoſe of the old towns, and the emigrants from them; thoſe on the ſouthern border, moſt of whom were emigrants from Maſſachuſetts; and thoſe on Connecticut river, who came chiefly from Connecticut.

Of the firſt claſs the people might be ſubdivided into thoſe who, having been trained in ſubjection to crown officers, were expectants of favours from government, and ready to promote the views of the ariſtocracy; and thoſe who, from principle or habit, were in oppoſition to thoſe views. A long and intimate connection with Maſſachuſetts, both in peace and war, kept alive a democratic principle; which, though it met with the frowns of men in office, yet, when excited to action, could not be controlled by their authority. The people of the ſecond claſs were naturally attached to Maſſachuſetts, whence they originated, and where they were connected in trade. Some towns had ſuffered by the interference of grants made by both governments, and by controverſies concerning the line; which gave birth to law-ſuits, carried on with great acrimony and expence for many years. Thoſe of the third claſs brought with them an affection and reſpect for the colony whence they emigrated, and where the democratic principle had always prevailed. They entertained an inferior idea of the people in the maritime parts of the ſtate; while theſe in return looked with an

envious eye on thoſe emigrants to whom were ſold the lands which had been promiſed to be given to them as a reward for the exertions and ſufferings of their parents and themſelves in defending the country againſt its enemies.

Another ſource of diſunion was the unequal repreſentation of the people in the general aſſembly. As late as the year 1773, of one hundred and forty-ſeven towns, forty-ſix only were repreſented, by thirty-four members; and ſeveral towns were claſſed, two or three together, for the choice of one. The towns of Nottingham and Concord, though full of people, and of above forty years ſtanding, had not once been admitted to the privilege of repreſentation; and this was the caſe with many other towns; which, though not of ſo long ſettlement, yet contained more inhabitants than ſome others, which had always enjoyed the privilege. No uniform ſyſtem of repreſentation had been adopted. None could be eſtabliſhed by law, becauſe it was claimed by the governor as part of the royal prerogative to call repreſentatives from new towns; and this prerogative was exerciſed without any regard to the rights, the petitions, or the ſentiments of the people.

Before the year 1771, the province was not divided into counties; but every cauſe from even the moſt remote parts was brought to Portſmouth, where the courts were held, and the public offices were filled by a few men, moſt of whom were either members of the council, or devoted to the intereſt of the governor, or perſonally related to him. In the adminiſtration of juſtice, frequent complaints were made of partiality. Parties were ſometimes heard out of court, and the practice of watering the jury was familiarly known to thoſe perſons who had much buſineſs in law. The dernier reſort was to a court of appeals, conſiſting of the governor and council; of whom ſeven were a quorum, and four a majority. Here the final ſentence was often paſſed by the ſame perſons who had been concerned in the former deciſions; unleſs the cauſe were of ſuch value as to admit of an appeal to the king in council. During the adminiſtration of the laſt governor, ſome of theſe ſources of diſaffection were removed; but others remained, for an experiment, whether a cure could be effected by a change of government.

The revolution, which called the democratic power into action, has repreſſed the ariſtocratic ſpirit. The honours and emoluments of office are more generally diffuſed; the people enjoy more equal privileges; and, after a long diſſenſion, are better united. Government is a ſcience, and requires education and information, as well as judgment and prudence. Indeed there are ſome who have ſtruggled through all the diſadvantages ariſing from the want of early education, and by force of native genius and induſtry, have acquired thoſe qualifications which have enabled them to render eminent ſervice to the community; and there are others who have been favoured with early education, and have improved their opportunity to good purpoſe. Notwithſtanding which, the deficiency of perſons qualified for the various departments in government has been much regretted, and by none more than by thoſe few, who know how public buſineſs ought to be conducted. This deficiency is daily decreaſing; the means of knowledge are extending; prejudices are wearing away, and the political character of the people is manifeſtly improving.

But however late the inhabitants of New-Hampſhire may be in political improvement; yet they have long poſſeſſed other valuable qualities which have rendered them an important branch of the American union. Firmneſs of nerve, patience in fatigue, intrepidity in danger, and alertneſs in action, are to be numbered among their native and eſſential characteriſtics.

Men who are concerned in travelling, hunting, cutting timber, making roads and other employments in the foreſt, are inured to hardſhips. They frequently lie out in the woods ſeveral days or weeks together, in all ſeaſons of the year. A hut, compoſed of poles and bark, ſuffices them for ſhelter; and on the open ſide of it, a large fire ſecures them from the ſeverity of the weather. Wrapt in a blanket, with their feet next the fire, they paſs the longeſt and coldeſt nights, and awake vigorous for labour the ſucceeding day. Their food, when thus employed, is ſalted pork or beef, with potatoes and bread of Indian corn; and their beſt drink is water mixed with ginger; though many of them are fond of diſtilled ſpirits, which, however, are leſs noxious in ſuch a ſituation than at home. Thoſe who begin a new ſettlement live at firſt in a ſtyle not leſs ſimple. They creſt a ſquare building of poles, notched at the ends to keep them faſt together. The crevices are plaiſtered with clay or the ſtiffeſt earth which can be had, mixed with moſs or ſtraw. The roof is either bark or ſplit boards: the chimney a pile of ſtones; within which a fire is made on the ground, and a hole is left in the roof for the ſmoke to paſs out. Another hole is made in the ſide of the houſe for a window, which is occaſionally cloſed with a wooden ſhutter. In winter, a conſtant fire is kept, by night as well as by day; and in ſummer it is neceſſary to have a continual ſmoke on account of the muſquetos and other inſects with which the woods abound. The ſame defence is uſed for the cattle; ſmokes of leaves and bruſh are made in the paſtures where they feed by day, and in the pens where they are folded by night. Ovens are built at a ſmall diſtance from the houſes, of the beſt ſtones which can be found, cemented and plaiſtered with clay or ſtiff earth. Many of theſe firſt eſſays in houſe keeping are to be met with in the new plantations, which ſerve to lodge whole families, till their induſtry can furniſh them with materials for a more regular and comfortable houſe; and till their land is ſo well cleared as that a proper ſituation for it can be choſen. By theſe methods of living, the people are familiariſed to hardſhips; their children are early uſed to coarſe food and hard lodging; and to be without ſhoes in all ſeaſons of the year, is ſcarcely accounted a want. By ſuch hard fare, and the labour which accompanies it, many young men have raiſed up families, and in a few years have acquired property ſufficient to render themſelves independent freeholders; and they feel all the pride and importance which ariſe from a conſciouſneſs of having well earned their eſtates.

They have alſo been accuſtomed to hear their parents relate the dangers and hardſhips, the ſcenes of blood and deſolation through which they and their anceſtors have paſſed; and they have an ambition to emulate their hardy virtues. New-Hampſhire may therefore be conſidered as a nurſery of ſtern heroiſm; producing men of firmneſs and valour, who can traverſe mountains and deſerts, encounter hardſhips, and face an enemy without terror. Their martial ſpirit needs only opportunity to draw it into action; and when properly trained to regular military duty, and commanded by officers in whom they can place confidence, they form a militia fully equal to the defence of their country.

They are alſo very dextrous in the uſe of edge tools, and in applying mechanical powers to the elevation and removal of heavy bodies. In the management of cattle they are excelled by none. Moſt of their labour is performed by the help of oxen; horſes are ſeldom employed in the team; but are uſed chiefly in the ſaddle, or, in the winter ſeaſon, in ſleighs.

Land being eaſily obtained, and labour of every kind being familiar, there is great encouragement to population. A good huſbandman, with

the ſavings of a few years, can purchaſe new land enough to give his elder ſons a ſettlement, and aſſiſt them in clearing a lot and building a hut; after which they ſoon learn to ſupport themſelves. The homeſtead is generally given to the youngeſt ſon, who provides for his parents, when age or infirmity incapacitates them for labour. An unmarried man of thirty years old is rarely to be found in our country towns. The women are grandmothers at forty, and it is not uncommon for a mother and daughter to have each a child at the breaſt, at the ſame time; nor for a father, ſon and grandſon, to be at work together in the ſame field. Thus population and cultivation proceed together, and a vigorous race of inhabitants grows up, on a ſoil, which labour vies with nature to render productive.

Thoſe perſons, who attend chiefly to huſbandry, are the moſt thriving and ſubſtantial. Thoſe who make the getting of lumber their principal buſineſs, generally work hard for little profit. This kind of employment interferes too much with huſbandry. The beſt ſeaſon for ſawing logs is the ſpring, when the rivers are high; this is alſo the time for ploughing and planting. He who works in the ſaw-mill at that time, muſt buy his bread and clothing, and the hay for his cattle, with his lumber; and he generally anticipates the profit of his labour. Long credit is a diſadvantage to him; and the too free indulgence of ſpirituous liquor, to which this claſs of people are much addicted, hurts their health, their morals, and their intereſt. They are always in debt, and frequently at law. Their families are ill provided with neceſſaries, and their children are without education or morals. When a man makes huſbandry his principal employment, and attends to lumber only at ſeaſons of leiſure, and can afford to keep it for a market, and be his own factor, then it becomes profitable. The profit of the other generally goes into the hands of the trader, who ſupplies him with neceſſaries at an advanced price, and keeps him in a ſtate of dependence.

Where huſbandry is the employment of the men, domeſtic manufactures are carried on by the women. They ſpin and weave their own flax and wool; and their families are clad in cloth of their own making. The people of Londonderry, and the towns which are made up of emigrants from it, attend largely to the manufacture of linen cloth and thread, and make great quantities for ſale. Theſe people are induſtrious, frugal, and hoſpitable. The men are ſanguine and robuſt. The women are of lively diſpoſitions, and the native white and red complexion of Ireland is not loſt in New-Hampſhire. The town is much indebted to them for its wealth and conſequence.

The people of New-Hampſhire, in general, are induſtrious, and allow themſelves very little time for diverſion. One who indulges himſelf in idleneſs and play, is ſtigmatiſed according to his demerit. At military muſters, at judicial courts, at the raiſing of houſes, at the launching of ſhips, and at the ordination of miniſters, which are ſeaſons of public concourſe, the young people amuſe themſelves with dancing. In ſome towns they have a practice, at Chriſtmas, of ſhooting geeſe for wagers; and on many other occaſions, the diverſion of firing at marks is very common, and has an excellent effect in forming young men to a dextrous uſe of arms. The time of gathering the Indian corn is always a ſeaſon of feſtivity. The ears are gathered and brought home by day; and in the evening a company of neighbours join in huſking them, and conclude their labour with a ſupper and a dance. In the capital towns they have regular aſſemblies for dancing; and ſometimes theatrical entertainments have been given by the young gentlemen and ladies. In Portſmouth, there is as much elegance and politeneſs of manners, as in any of the

the capital towns of New England. It is often visited by strangers, who always meet with a friendly and hospitable reception.

The free indulgence of spirituous liquors has been, and is now, one of the greatest faults of many of the people of New-Hampshire; especially in the neighbourhood of the river Piscataqua and its branches, and wherever the business of getting lumber forms the principal employment of the people. If the reader is curious to form an estimate of the quantity of distilled spirits consumed in the state, he may satisfy himself, partly by inspecting the table of importation; partly by inquiring the number of barrels of rum manufactured at the only distil house in the state; partly by considering the quantity transported by land from the different seaports of Massachusetts, and partly by knowing 'the allowance' which is usually given to labouring people in the neighbourhood of the river Piscataqua; and which is obstinately persisted in, notwithstanding the remonstrances and endeavours of some worthy characters to abolish it.

In travelling up the country, it affords pleasure to observe the various articles of produce and manufacture coming to market; but in travelling down the country, it is equally disgustful to meet the same teams returning, loaded with casks of rum, along with fish, salt, and other necessary articles.

Before the revolution it was customary to give drams at funerals, and in some towns to repeat the baneful dose two or three times. During the war, a scarcity of materials gave opportunity to put a check on this pernicious practice. It is now less common in most places, and in some it is wholly disused.

Among husbandmen, cider is their common drink. Malt liquor is not so frequent as its wholesomeness deserves, and as the facility with which barley and hops may be raised, seems to require. In some of the new towns a liquor is made of spruce twigs, boiled in maple sap, which is extremely pleasant. But after all, there are no persons more robust and healthy than those, whose only or principal drink is the simple element, with which nature has universally and bountifully supplied this happy land.

REFLECTIONS *on the* CONCLUSION *of the* YEAR.

'Panci prudentia, honesta ab deterioribus, utilia ab noxiis discernunt; plures aliorum eventis docentur.' TACIT. lib. 4.

THE most valuable part of human life is that which we devote to a retrospect of the past. We cannot lay claim to the character of rational creatures, if we cannot abstract our minds from the immediate course of human events to the source whence they flow. It is this which begets experience, which is the most valuable of all knowledge. When we consider that life is short, we shall be impressed with a sense of its value, and when we consider that it is uncertain, we shall feel the dignity and importance of those habits of reflection which answer the purposes of preparation. It was remarked in the paper corresponding to this, in our last year's volume, that 'the most obvious truth in nature is the shortness and uncertainty of life; and the most simple duty is to be mindful of this truth.' Volumes cannot express more on a subject which so easily accommodates itself to the comprehension of every thinking being, but which is nevertheless frequently forgotten in the hurry of business, or amid the fascinations of pleasure.

It is peculiar to the disposition of the present times, that men seem to forget the duties of the individual, and to direct their attention to the reformation of the species in a mass.

Well-

Well-written, lively, and ingenious, yet wild theories are every day presented to us, for the amendment of the condition, and for perfecting the happineſs of the whole human race, and we are gravely told of the vaſt progreſs every where making toward this deſireable end. And thus what was formerly held to be viſionary, or Utopian, is now accounted rational and philoſophic. Yet in this wonderful eagerneſs to provide for the happineſs of the univerſe, what viſible progreſs is made by individuals? Are they to be made better by a contemptuous diſregard for religion, by a proud rejection of all authority in which they have no ſhare, and by being taught that every thing above them ought to be beneath them? He who preaches theſe doctrines may well boaſt of his ſucceſs. *He* cannot fail to gain proſelytes who addreſſes himſelf to the pride of mankind, and converts their worſt paſſions into pretended principles.

The aſpect of the preſent times is truly ſerious, and cannot be too frequently the ſubject of reflection. On the one hand we perceive an obſtinate reſiſtance to every ſpecies of reformation, and on the other an inflexible averſion to temperance and moderation. The former is reſiſted becauſe it may go too far. The latter is deſpiſed becauſe it does not go far enough. In this colliſion of opinions, which can never incorporate, where are they to place themſelves, or how carry on their operations, who are able to diſtinguiſh between the obſtinacy of bigotry, and the dangers of reſtleſs innovation? The utmoſt that we can hope is, that what has happened will happen again, that warmth and intemperance, not being natural to a wiſe and ſenſible people, will give place to reflection, and that when the preſent fervour is allayed, men will ſee that the happineſs of the whole can be heightened only by the active virtue of the individual. A ſpirit of moderation, has in ſome degree, gone forth, and it is that only which renders experience or knowledge profitable.

The worſt feature in the preſent aſpect is a contempt for religion, which is aſſailed from various quarters, and by every poſſible means. Revelation is again attacked by the weapons which, ſome years ago, were feebly handled by a band of profeſſed deiſts; and no performance is thought contemptible, which aims at the deſtruction of religious eſtabliſhments. The clergy are again the objects of ridicule, becauſe among them, as among men of all deſcriptions, ſome may be found who are unworthy of the honours due to their profeſſion. It has long been the practice to attack religion in the perſon of the clergy, and a more inconclusive argument was never conceived by the ſophiſtry of man. The ſucceſs of Chriſtianity, in the earlieſt ages, was not obſtructed, becauſe one of thoſe few who witneſſed its divine authority, was an apoſtate.

The propagators of infidelity may probably conſider their ſucceſs as a proof of the goodneſs of their cauſe. But if they were as capable of reaſoning, as they are of perverting truth, they would ſoon diſcover that the merit of this ſucceſs belongs not to their endeavours. If they will reckon up the numbers to whom religion is a matter of indifference, and who may wiſh to juſtify that indifference by a few common-place ſneers; if to theſe they will add the numbers to whom, upon account of the wickedneſs of their lives, and the injuſtice of their ſentiments, it is abſolutely neceſſary that there ſhould be no religion founded upon the idea of a future ſtate of retribution; and if they will conſider how many there are who have never ſtudied the arguments for and againſt revelation at all; they will diſcover that in all this catalogue they cannot probably find one whom they have brought over to infidelity by dint of argument only. It is not, in truth, upon argument that the apoſtle of infidelity reſts his ſucceſs. He knows

that

that it is better ſecured by addreſſing the common paſſions of mankind, by foſtering the turbulence of their diſpoſitions, and flattering their averſion to diſcipline.

The events now paſſing in Europe, afford ſubject for the moſt extenſive conſideration. The ſtream of blood has been ceaſeleſs; human life is ſported with as a thing of no value; plans of wiſdom, or ambition, are oſtentatiouſly formed, but the execution of them has been continually baffled. Theſe are matters which, it is needleſs to ſay, we cannot look upon with indifference, becauſe we are intimately concerned in their progreſs. Nor can we look back on the domeſtic confuſions and jarrings of ſentiment, which have diſtracted the minds of men during the cloſing year, without deducing an inference of the utmoſt importance, I mean, *the neceſſity of being provided with right principles.*

The utility of ſuch principles may be proved at all times, but in times of public confuſion they are obvious beyond all demonſtration. It is the duty of every man to acquire, by reading and reflection, ſuch a knowledge of the obligations he owes to ſociety, and the manner in which he ought to diſcharge them, as may fortify him againſt ſurpriſe of any kind, and particularly againſt thoſe ſudden changes of circumſtances which never fail to confound the ignorant, and miſlead the wavering. It is a ſevere, yet a juſt ſatire upon a great part of mankind, that they are the mere creatures of events, mere machines in the hands of the more knowing and artful. This could not happen if they were ſoundly eſtabliſhed in the principles of their duty as men, as Chriſtians, and as members of a community.

Deprived of ſuch principles, we obſerve mankind acting in a manner the moſt abſurd and often wicked. That is a principle to-day which is to-morrow a crime: men are applauded, at one time, for actions, which bring puniſhment on their heads at another. In this chaos of ſentiment, grows up a thing called popularity, a weed of the moſt deſtructive nature. No man has courted popularity without being betrayed by it. It is, indeed, ſeldom in a man's life, that he has an opportunity of performing a public act, which ſhall at all times be approved. Moſt of thoſe actions which have been attended with popularity have been, at the ſame time, the intereſted artifices of ambitious men to gain a certain end, and were connected with no abſtract or pure virtue. Popularity is indeed nothing more than the applauſe of a mob, of perſons wholly incapable of judging of the merit of actions, and who from the moſt trifling of cauſes are ready to change their *Hoſannahs* into execrations. I will not ſay that no wiſe man has experienced what it is to be popular, but I queſtion much if any really wiſe man ever felt more pleaſure from popularity than the tranſient impreſſion of the moment. It would be an inconſiſtency in terms to ſay that a wiſe man would court popularity.

In all the events of life, it will be found the greateſt wiſdom to ſtudy and know what is juſt and good, and practiſe it without any dread of the conſequences. That time muſt rarely occur when it is neceſſary to ſuppreſs any duty in compliance with circumſtances. In public as well as in private life, the uſeful and the happy are thoſe whoſe principles are ſteady, whoſe rectitude is firm, and who know that truth and wiſdom are not attributes of this or that nation, or to be practiſed at one time more than at another, but are univerſally applicable, in all ſeaſons and changes, and univerſally incumbent in every duty of life, and in every diſpenſation of Providence. This is a doctrine which cannot be too often inculcated. It has been confirmed by all experience, and has ſurvived the wreck of all part nations.

Why a diſtinction ſhould be made between

between the duties of man in a public, and in a private ſtation, I am unable to account. It is the aggregate of virtue and happineſs in the individual, which we call the virtue or happineſs of a nation. Governments have little in their power, with reſpect to the happineſs of an individual. Bad governments may injure property or liberty. Good ones, by reſpecting thoſe, contribute only negatively to the happineſs of the people. Men may be deterred from crimes by a law, but no law can compel to the practice of virtue. Averſe as I am to introduce a ſubject which may ſeem foreign to the purpoſe of this paper, I cannot ſuppreſs the opinion, that had the people of a neighbouring nation been *virtuous*, we ſhould never have heard of the many thouſand lives ſacrificed in cold blood. It is a miſerable excuſe to ſay that ſuch things were *neceſſary* to promote the cauſe of liberty. They were not found neceſſary in the violent ſtruggle which ſeparated America from Great Britain; and no people, I am perſuaded, who are influenced by a ſpirit of religion or virtue, will ever find the commiſſion of crimes neceſſary to the promotion of happineſs.

There is one diſtinction between individuals and the community, which it is neceſſary to ſtate. The performance of public duties we delegate to others; thoſe incumbent on us as men, we cannot delegate. Men have been cenſured for their indifference to the government of public affairs, but this failing is not ſo obnoxious to common ſenſe, as that impertinent ſpirit of meddling which ariſes from a mixture of vanity and ignorance. That ſome muſt rule, and ſome obey, has been the conſtitution of all nations. The buſineſs of life will ſtand ſtill, if every man becomes a public character. This, indeed, is not much to be feared in a nation, whoſe characteriſtic may, without ſatire, be ſaid to be good ſenſe, and a general attention to domeſtic duties, and who, nevertheleſs, have not been ſupine when great occaſions have called for more active demonſtrations of public opinion.

The ſubject of religion adverted to in the former part of this paper, very naturally occurs as furniſhing a proper concluſion. Much as it has been attacked by ridicule and ſophiſtry, I truſt that it is firmly ſeated in the hearts of the majority of the people, and that we ſhall experience none of thoſe effects of infidelity, which break out in an open defiance of the duties of men, and of the laws of heaven. 'The influence of religion,' ſays that able champion, Mr. Paley, 'is not to be ſought for in the councils of princes, in the debates or reſolutions of popular aſſemblies, in the conduct of governments toward their ſubjects, or of ſtates and ſovereigns toward one another; of conquerors at the head of their armies, or of parties intriguing for power at home (topics, which alone almoſt occupy the attention, and fill the pages of hiſtory) but muſt be perceived, if perceived at all, in the ſilent courſe of private and domeſtic life. Nay more; even *there* its influence may not be very obvious to obſervation. If it check, in ſome degree, perſonal diſſoluteneſs, if it beget a general probity in the tranſaction of buſineſs, if it produce ſoft and humane manners in the maſs of the community, and occaſional exertions of laborious or expenſive benevolence in a few individuals, it is all the effect which can offer itſelf to external notice. The kingdom of heaven is within us. That which is the ſubſtance of the religion, its hopes and conſolations, its intermixture with the thoughts by day and by night, the devotion of the heart, the control of appetite, the ſteady direction of the will to the commands of God, is neceſſarily inviſible. Yet upon theſe depend the virtue and the happineſs of millions. This cauſe renders the repreſentations of hiſtory, with reſpect to religion, defective and fallacious, in a greater de-

gree than they are upon any other ſubject. Religion operates moſt upon thoſe of whom hiſtory knows the leaſt, upon fathers and mothers in their families, upon men ſervants and maid ſervants, upon the orderly tradeſman, the quiet villager, the manufacturer at his loom, and the huſbandman in his fields. Much of this influence may be felt in times of public diſtreſs.'

Much, therefore, have they to account for, who, in ſuch times, wiſh to deprive men of the conſolations ariſing from religious hope, and the virtue reſulting from religious belief. The ſubſtitution of a cold philoſophy will ill atone for that animating and firm hope which religion affords to guide us, and cheer our efforts in all time of need, ſorrow, ſickneſs, or adverſity, whether of a public or domeſtic kind. And fruitleſs will be our recollection of the events of the expiring year, if we forget our dependence upon Him who is the Giver of every good and every perfect Gift. C.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

WINTER.

[From the Looker-on, No. xii.]

STERN Winter, though thy rugged reign
Chills the pale boſom of the plain,
And in deep ſighs thy hollow blaſt,
Tells me the happy hours are paſt
That ſaw meek ſpring her bloſſoms rear,
And lead along the infant year;
Thy thickening glooms, and leafleſs tree,
Have charms for Emma and for me.

And though the light-wing'd breeze no more,
Wafts the rich ſweets of ſummer's ſtore,
Though autumn's ſcene no more beguiles,
My cot is warm, and Emma ſmiles.
Then, Winter, come! thy ſtorms and rain
Beat on this happy roof in vain.
The ſhivering blaſt, and leafleſs tree,
Have charms for Emma and for me.

Then what avail thy wind and ſtorm,
That nature's withering face deform,
If fancy's briſk and ſportive lay,
Awake to pleaſure's willing ſway;
If the quick jeſt, and lively ſong,
Bid the ſlow night move blithe along?
For then thy glooms, and leafleſs tree,
Have charms for Emma and for me.

Thus, when the bloom of youth is dead,
And fancy's frolic hours are fled,
Tranquil, and free from paſſion's rage,
I'll meet the hoary froſt of age.

Then, Winter, come; theſe bleſſings bring;
I ſigh not for the gaudy ſpring:
So ſhall thy glooms, and leafleſs tree,
Have charms for Emma and for me.

THE CONSOLATION.

[From the Same, No. xxvii.]

SAY, Henry, ſhould a man of mind
Sigh o'er his brittle cruſt,
Or grieve, becauſe it is not join'd
To fibres more robuſt?

Look round with philoſophic ken,
Through Nature's works below,
From very atoms up to men,
You'll find it order'd ſo.

That much of all we choiceſt hold,
Admire with one acclaim,
Is of a delicater mould,
And of a feebler frame.

Look at that bird * of gloſſieſt wings,
Yet ſweeter taſte than plume,
That ſcuds, that murmurs, ſips, and ſings,
And feaſts upon perfume.

Look at the roſe his bill invades
With eager wanton ſtrife;
On what a ſlender ſtem it fades
And bluſhes out its life.

Look at bent lilies as you walk,
How elegantly thin;
Yet well that fragrance from their ſtalk
Proclaims the power within.

Look at the ſex whoſe form may vaunt
More grace than bird or roſe;
What fine infirmities enchant,
What frailty charms in thoſe,

* The humming bird.

Examine men, the world around,
That ſoar with gen'rous aim;
How few with rugged ſtrength abound
In fibre, or in frame!

Great ſouls, with energetic thought,
Wear out their ſhell of clay;
Yet at each crevice light is caught
Till all is mental day.

Then, Henry, let no man of mind
Sigh o'er his brittle cruſt,
Or grieve becauſe it is not join'd
To fibres more robuſt.

AN APOLOGUE.

WOO'D by the ſummer gale, an olive ſtood
Beſide the margin of a ſilver flood,
Beneath its playful gently-wav'ring ſhade
A Syrian roſe her Eaſtern bloom diſplay'd!
The flow'r complain'd, that ſtretching o'er her head
The dark'ning olive a broad umbrage ſpread,
Or if admitted to a partial view,
Her bluſhing leaves imbib'd a yellow hue.

Not unattentive to the mournful ſtrain,
The maſter heard his Syrian roſe complain:
The ready axe ſoon urg'd the fatal wound,
And low'd the ſtately olive to the ground!
The roſe exulting now with full diſplay
Gave all her beauty to the gariſh day;
But ſoon her triumph ceas'd, the mid-day beam
Pour'd on her tender frame a ſcorching ſtream:
The roſe now ſick'ning, drooping, languid, pale,
Call'd the ſoft ſhow'r, and call'd the cooling gale;
Nor ſoft'ning ſhow'r, nor gale with cooling breath,
Approach'd, to ſave her from untimely death.

The humbled olive ſaw the roſe diſtreſs'd,
And thus with dying voice the flow'r addreſs'd:
Ah! were it not that low-born envy ſtrike
With all its rancour on thy yielding form,
I might, attir'd in youth's unfading green,
Have ſtill embelliſhed the ſurrounding ſcene;
And thou, detaining ſtill th' admiring eye,
Have breath'd thy little incenſe to the ſky!

SONNET.

[From Poems by the Rev. W. L. Bowles.]

ITCHIN, when I behold thy banks again,
Thy crumbling margin and thy ſilver breaſt,
On which the ſelf-ſame tints ſtill ſeem to reſt,
Why feels my heart the ſhiv'ring ſenſe of pain?
Is it—that many a ſummer's day has paſt
Since, in life's morn, I carol'd on thy ſide?
Is it—that oft, ſince then, my heart has ſigh'd,
As Youth, and Hope's deluſive gleams, flew faſt?
Is it—that thoſe, who circled on thy ſhore,
Companions of my youth, now meet no more?
Whate'er the cauſe, upon thy banks I bend
Sorrowing, yet feel ſuch ſolace at my heart,
As at the meeting of ſome long-loſt friend,
From whom, in happier hours, we wept to part.

ON SHAKSPEARE.

[From the Same]

O Sovereign maſter, who with lonely ſtate
Doſt reign as in ſome iſle's inchanted land,
On whom ſoft airs and ſhadowy ſpirits wait,
While ſcenes of fairie riſe at thy command!
On thy wild ſhores forgetful could I lye,
And liſt, 'till earth diſſolv'd, to thy ſweet minſtreſy!

Call'd by thy magic from the hoary deep
Aërial forms ſhould in bright troops aſcend,
And then a wond'rous maſk before me ſweep;
While ſounds, *that the earth ever'd not* ſeem'd to blend
Their ſtealing melodies, that when the ſtrain
Ceas'd, *I ſhould weep, and would ſo dream again!*

The charm is wound: I ſee an aged form,
In white robes, on the winding ſea-ſhore ſtand;
O'er the careering ſurge he waves his wand:
Upon the black rock burſts the bidden ſtorm.

Now

Now from bright opening clouds I hear a lay,
Come to these yellow sands, fair stranger, come away.*

Saw ye pass by the weir'd sisters pale† ?
Mark'd ye the low'ring castle on the heath ?
Hark ! hark ! is the deed done ? the deed of death ?
The deed is done :—hail, king of Scotland, hail !
I see no more ;—to many a fearful sound
The bloody cauldron sinks, and all is dark around.

Pity ! touch the trembling strings,
A maid, a beauteous maniac, wildly sings,
'They laid him in the ground so cold ‡,
Upon his breast the earth was thrown ;
High is heap'd the grassy mould,
Oh ! he is dead and gone.
The winds of the winter blow o'er his cold breast,
But pleasant shall be his rest.'

The song is ceas'd ; ah ! who, pale shade ! art thou,
Sad raving to the rude tempestuous night ?
Sure thou hast had much wrong, so stern thy brow ;
So piteous thou dost tear thy tresses white ;
So wildly thou dost cry, '*Blow, bitter wind,*
Ye elements, I call not you unkind ‖.'

Beneath the shade of nodding branches grey,
'Mid rude romantic woods, and glens forlorn,
The merry hunters wear the hours away ;
Rings the deep forest to the joyous horn !
Joyous to all, but him §, who with sad look
Hangs idly musing by the brawling brook.

But mark the merry elves of fairy land ¶!
In the cold moon's gleamy glance,
They with shadowy morrice dance :
Soft music dies along the desert sand :
Soon at peep of cold-ey'd day,
Soon the numerous lights decay ;
Merrily, now merrily,
After the dewy moon they fly.

Let rosy Laughter now advance,
And Wit with twinkling eye,
Where quaint pow'rs lurking lye :
Bright Fancy, the queen of the revels, shall dance,
And point to her frolicksome train
And antic forms that flit unnumber'd o'er the plain.

O sovereign master ! at whose sole command
We start with terror, or with pity weep ;
O ! where is now thy all-creating wand ?
Buried ten thousand fathoms in the deep.
The staff is broke, the powerful spell is fled,
And never earthly guest shall in thy circle tread.

ODE to FANCY.

O ! Lead me at the close of day,
To view the ruby orb of fire,
Beneath night's canopy retire,
As down the west he speeds away :—
To gaze upon the clouds of gold,
O'er amber ev'ning's beauties roll'd,
In visionary forms sublime ;
Where mingled with the dappled skies,
The crimson blushes proudly rise,
To meliorate departing time !

Now Cynthia throws her spangled dew,
O'er night's enchanting sable hue,
And bids the stars their glories hide ;
While in her beams are seen to sport,
The tiny fairies of her court,
In all their variegated pride :—
There Fancy thou art known to reign,
Light rob'd among the mystic train :
Transparent gossimer doth veil
Thy graces from the tepid gale ;
And round thy brows the ariels twine,
A filmy wreath of pow'r divine :—
Then, as the little moon glides down,
And deeper shadows dim the light ;
The bashful stars, a radiant crown,
Weave for the sable queen of night :
While Fancy, thou art seen to stray,
Through the bright constellated way.

Alike, when rosy-finger'd morn
Her glories on the twilight flings ;
The lovely cherubs of the dawn,
Wanton on their purple wings ;
And see, the flaky mists arise,
In spiral columns to the skies ;
While vestal health with joy elate,
Stands tip-toe on the golden gate,
Where fair Aurora leads the hours
To carol through their sunny bow'rs ;
There Fancy, with imperial gaze,
Adores Apollo's radiant blaze ;
And, with a conscious bliss, impearls
Her sparkling diamonds in his golden curls.

* Ferdinand : See The Tempest. † See Macbeth. ‡ Ophelia : Hamlet.
‖ See Lear. § Jaques : As You Like it. ¶ See Midsummer Night's Dream.

Yes, central nymph, thou too art ſeen
To his acroſs the ruſſet green;
O'er bending graſs and ripen'd corn,
Gay with the freſhneſs of the morn.
I've mark'd thee loiter down the glade,
In ſearch of love's romantic maid;
Whom diſappointed paſſion drove,
To ſeek the woodbine's ſhelter'd grove:
Fancy, 'tis thine, with brilliant fire,
To ſweep the muſe's trilling lyre;
From thee, the ſweet ideas ſpring,
Which Ida's nymphs are heard to ſing;
'Tis thine, to bid their fervors roll,
With melting tranſport to the ſoul:
O Fancy, could thy ſtrains divine,
Impreſs the minſtrel's chary line;
I'd crown thee with ſuch luſtrous rays,
Should rival e'en the God of day's proud blaze!

TWO ODES diſcovered in the Palatine Library at Rome, in 1789, and aſcribed to Horace.

ODE I. AD JULIUM FLORUM.

DIſcolor grandem gravat uva ramum;
Inſtat Autumnus: glacialis anno
Mox hyems volvente aderit, capillis
Horrida canis.

Jam licet Nymphas trepidæ fugaces
Inſequi, lento pede detinendas;
Et labris captæ, ſimulantis iram,
Oſcula figi.

Jam licet vino madidos vetuſto
De die lætum recitare carmen:
Flore, ſi te des hilarem, licebit
Sumere noctem.

Jam vide curas Aquilone ſparſas?
Mens viri fortis ſibi conſtat, utrùm
Seriùs lethi, citiùſve triſtis
Advolat hora.

ODE II. AD LIBRUM SUUM.

DUlci libello nemo ſodalium
Fortàn meorum charior extitit.
De te merenti quid fidelis
Officium domino rependes?

Te Roma cautum territat ardua?
Depone vanos in idiæ metus;
Urbiſque fidens dignitati,
Per plateas animoſus audi.

En quo furentes Eumenidum choros
Dejecit almo fulmine Jupiter?
Huic ara ſtabit, fama canet
Perpetuo celebranda creſcet.

TRANSLATION of the two ODES aſcribed to HORACE.

[From Hampſon's Tranſlation of Vida's Poetics.]

AUTUMN advances, and the rolling year
Purples the vine, and bends the loaded bough;
Ere long, fierce, ſluggiſh winter will be here,
Bound up in froſt, and white with Alpine ſnow.

Now flies the nymph; the am'rous youth purſues;
(His claſping arms the ſtruggling fair detain)
Imprints the kiſs her maiden arts refuſe,
For well he knows the virgin does but feign.

Now is the time, with wine and ſprightly ſong,
To crown the feaſt, and gild the gladſome day,
If thou be there, my Florus, and prolong
Late to the noon of night the feſtive fay:

What tho' the north from his bleak pinions ſhed
Conſuming care, the brave deſies his pow'r;
Careleſs, if ſoon to join th' oblivious dead,
Or diſtant yet th' irrevocable hour.

ODE II. TO HIS BOOK.

OH! thou my firſt delight, immortal page,
Child of my ſoul, ah! how ſhalt thou repay
My fond regards, and bleſs the future age,
If yet unſeen thy latent charms decay?

Does critic Rome thy cautious breaſt controul?
Diſmiſs thy fears; the ſhafts of envy dare;
Go forth, unanxious; and from pole to pole,
Swift as the winds, thy maſter's glory bear.

See, where the red right hand of thund'ring Jove
Hurls the fierce furies to the ſhades below!
He be invok'd, the firſt of Gods above,
And in our ſtrains his praiſe perennial flow.

STATE

STATE PAPERS.

Memorial, presented by Mr. Jay, Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States of America to the British Court.

THE undersigned envoy of the United States of America, has the honour of representing to the right honourable lord Grenville, his Britannick majesty's secretary of state for the department of foreign affairs,

That a very considerable number of American vessels have been irregularly captured, and as improperly condemned, by certain of his majesty's officers and judges.

That, in various instances, these captures and condemnations were so conducted, and the captured placed under such unfavourable circumstances, as that, for want of the securities required, and other obstacles, no appeals were made in some cases, nor any claims in others.

The undersigned presumes that these facts will appear from the documents which he has had the honour of submitting to his lordship's consideration; and that it will not be deemed necessary at present to particularize these cases, and their merits, or detail the circumstances, which discriminate some from others.

The great and extensive injuries having thus, under colour of his majesty's authority and commission, been done to a numerous class of American merchants, the United States can for reparation have recourse only to the justice, authority, and interposition of his majesty. That the vessels and property taken and condemned have been chiefly sold, and the proceeds divided among a number of persons, of whom some are dead, some unable to make retribution, and others, from frequent removals, and their particular circumstances, not easily reached by civil process.

That as for these losses and injuries, adequate compensation, by means of judicial proceedings, has become impracticable; and considering the causes which combined to produce them, the United States confide in his majesty's justice and magnanimity, to cause such compensation to be made to these innocent sufferers, as may be consistent with equity; and the undersigned flatters himself, that such principles may without difficulty be adopted, as will serve as rules whereby to ascertain the cases and the amount of compensation.

So grievous are the expenses and delays attending litigated suits, to persons whose fortunes have been so materially affected; and so great is the distance of Great-Britain from America, that the undersigned thinks he ought to express his anxiety, that a mode of proceeding as summary and little expensive may be devised, as circumstances and the peculiar hardship of these cases may appear to permit and require.

And as (at least in some of these cases) it may be expedient and necessary, as well as just, that the sentences of the courts of vice-admiralty should be revised and corrected by the courts of appeals here; the undersigned hopes it will appear reasonable to his majesty, to order that the captured in question (who have not already so done) be there admitted to enter both their appeals and their claims.

The undersigned also finds it to be his duty to represent, that the irregularities before mentioned, extended, not only to the capture and condemnations of American vessels and property, and to unusual personal severities, but even to the impressment of American citizens, to serve on board of armed vessels. He forbears to dwell on the injuries done to these unfortunate individuals, or on the emotions which they must naturally excite, either in the breasts of the nation to whom they belong, or of the just and humane of every country. His reliance on the justice and benevolence of his majesty, leads him to indulge a pleasing expectation, that orders will be given, that Americans, so circumstanced, be immediately liberated, and that persons honoured with his majesty's commissions, do in future abstain from similar violences.

It is with cordial satisfaction that the undersigned reflects on the impressions which such equitable and conciliatory measures would make on the minds of the United States, and how naturally they would inspire and cherish these sentiments and dispositions which never fail to preserve, as well as to produce, respect, esteem, and friendship.

(Signed) JOHN JAY.

London, July 30, 1794.

LORD GRENVILLE'S ANSWER.

THE undersigned secretary of state has had the honour to lay before the king the ministerial note which he has received from Mr. Jay, envoy-extraordinary and minister-plenipotentiary from the United States of America, respecting the alleged irregularity

gularity of the capture and condemnation of ſeveral American veſſels, and alſo reſpecting the circumſtances of perſonal ſeverity, by which thoſe proceedings are ſtated to have been accompanied, in ſome particular inſtances.

The underſigned is authoriſed to aſſure Mr. Jay, that it is his majeſty's wiſh, that the moſt complete and impartial juſtice ſhould be done to all the citizens of America, who may in fact have been injured by any of the proceedings above mentioned. All experience ſhows, that a naval war, extending over the four quarters of the globe, muſt unavoidably be productive of ſome inconveniences to the commerce of neutral nations; and that no care can prevent ſome irregularities in the courſe of thoſe proceedings, which are univerſally recognized as reſulting from the juſt rights incident to all belligerent powers. But the king will always be deſirous that thoſe inconveniences and irregularities ſhould be as much limited as the nature of the caſe will admit, and that the fulleſt opportunity ſhould be given to all to prefer their complaints, and to obtain redreſs and compenſation where they are due.

In Mr. Jay's note, mention is made of ſeveral caſes where the parties have hitherto omitted to prefer their claims, and of others, where no appeals have been made from the ſentences of condemnation pronounced in the firſt inſtance.

As to the caſes of the firſt deſcription, lord Grenville apprehends that the regular courſe of law is ſtill open to the claimants; and that by preferring appeals to the commiſſioners of prize cauſes here, againſt the ſentence of the courts below, the whole merits of thoſe caſes may be brought forward, and the moſt complete juſtice obtained.

In the caſes of ſecond deſcription, the proceeding might be difficult, from the lapſe of the time uſually allotted for preferring appeals.—But his majeſty being anxious that no temporary or local circumſtances, ſuch as thoſe to which Mr. Jay refers in his note, ſhould impede the courſe of ſubſtantial juſtice, has been pleaſed to refer it to the proper Officers to conſider of a mode of enlarging the time for receiving the appeals, in thoſe caſes, in order to admit the claimants to bring their complaints before the regular court appointed for that purpoſe.

The underſigned has no doubt that in this manner a very conſiderable part of the injuries alleged to have been ſuffered by the Americans, may, if the complaints are well founded, be redreſſed in the uſual courſe of judicial proceeding, at a very ſmall expenſe to the parties, and without any other interpoſition of his majeſty's government than is above ſtated—until the reſult and effect of theſe proceedings ſhall be known, no definitive judgment can be formed reſpecting the nature and extent of thoſe caſes (if any ſuch ſhall ultimately be found to exiſt) where it ſhall not have been practicable to obtain ſubſtantial redreſs in this mode.—But he does not heſitate to ſay before hand, that, if caſes ſhall then be found to exiſt, to ſuch an extent as properly to call for the interpoſition of government, where, without the fault of the parties complaining, they ſhall be unable, from whatever circumſtances, to procure ſuch redreſs in the ordinary courſe of law, as the juſtice of their caſes may entitle them to expect, his majeſty will be anxious that juſtice ſhould at all events be done, and will readily enter into the diſcuſſion of the meaſures to be adopted, and the principles to be eſtabliſhed for that purpoſe.

With reſpect to all acts of perſonal ſeverity and violence, as the king muſt entirely diſapprove every ſuch tranſaction, ſo his majeſty's courts are always open for the puniſhment of offences of this nature; and for giving redreſs to the ſufferers in every caſe where the fact can be eſtabliſhed by ſatisfactory proof; nor does it appear that any caſe of that nature can exiſt, where there would be the ſmalleſt difficulty of obtaining, in that mode, ſubſtantial and exemplary juſtice.

On the ſubject of the impreſs, lord Grenville has only to aſſure Mr. Jay, that if, in any inſtance, American ſeamen have been impreſſed into the king's ſervice, it has been contrary to the king's deſire; though ſuch caſes may have occaſionally ariſen from the difficulty of diſcriminating between Britiſh and American ſeamen, eſpecially, where there ſo often exiſts an intereſt and intention to deceive:—Whenever any repreſentation has been made to lord Grenville on the ſubject, he has never failed to receive his majeſty's commands for putting it in a proper courſe, in order that the facts might be enquired into, and aſcertained; and to the intent that the perſons in queſtion might be releaſed, if the facts appeared to be ſatisfactorily eſtabliſhed.

With reſpect to the deſire expreſſed by Mr. Jay, that new orders might be given with a view to prevent, as far as it is poſſible, the giving any juſt ground of complaint

complaint on this head, lord Grenville has no reaſon to doubt that his majeſty's intentions reſpecting this point are already ſufficiently underſtood by his majeſty's officers, employed on that ſervice: but he has, nevertheleſs, obtained his majeſty's permiſſion to aſſure Mr. Jay, that, inſtructions to the effect deſired, will be renewed in conſequence of his application.

The underſigned avails himſelf with pleaſure of this opportunity to renew to Mr. Jay his aſſurances of his ſincere eſteem and conſideration.

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

Downing-ſtreet, Auguſt 1, 1794.

STATE TRIALS,

Continued from Page 380.

ON Monday, December 1, at about a quarter after nine o'clock, the court under the ſpecial commiſſion met again at the Old Bailey, when John Auguſtus Bonney, Jeremiah Joyce, Stewart Kyd, and Thomas Holcroft, were brought to the bar, and the following jury ſworn in:

Charles Digby, Robert Batſon, Alexander Trotter, Robert Mellish, William Harwood, James Haygarth, Robert Lewis, Mark Hudſon, Henry Bullock, John Powſey, Hugh Reynolds, Thomas Harriſon, eſqrs.

The jury being ſworn in, and the priſoners arraigned in due form, the attorney-general ſaid, that when he had, on the laſt trials, the honour to ſtand there in the diſcharge of his official duty, he addreſſed the jury, in order to ſtate the grounds of the proſecution, and the juries, on thoſe trials, had found a verdict of Not Guilty. It then became his duty to conſider what was proper to be done in reſpect to the public and the priſoners at the bar. The reſult was, that as the evidence adduced on thoſe trials, and that which applied to the priſoners, were the ſame, and as, after the beſt conſideration, the perſons had been acquitted, he would ſubmit to the jury and court, whether the priſoners ſhould not be acquitted, and for that purpoſe would not trouble them by going into evidence. The lord preſident then addreſſed the jury thus: 'Gentlemen, as there is no evidence, you muſt of courſe find the priſoners Not Guilty.'—The jury then pronounced a verdict of Not Guilty; and, by direction of the court, the priſoners were diſcharged. Meſſrs. Bonney, Joyce, and Kyd, bowed to the court, and retired. Mr. Holcroft remained, in order to addreſs the jury; but the court informed him, that, having been acquitted, there was no room for further obſervation. Mr. Holcroft ſtill perſiſted in attempting to ſpeak, and was informed by the court, that, although he had no right to be heard now, he ſhould, nevertheleſs, be indulged, if he made no improper uſe of that indulgence. Mr. Holcroft then proceeded, but was ſoon interrupted by the court, and, at laſt, with ſome difficulty, prevailed upon to retire.

Mr. John Thelwall was then brought to the bar, and the following gentlemen were ſworn in of the jury:

ADAM STEINMETZ, eſq. Limehouſe.
JAMES PAINE, eſq.
JOHN MERCER, eſq.
RICHARD CARTER, eſq. Paddington-ſtreet.
NATHANAEL STONARD, eſq. Bromley.
JOSEPH NICOL, eſq. Willſdon.
ANDREW BURT, eſq.
JAMES STEEVENS, eſq.
JONATHAN EADE, eſq. Stoke Newington.
GEORGE ELLWARD, eſq.
EDWARD HILL, eſq.
JOSEPH AINSLEY, eſq. St. George's in the Eaſt. *

After Mr. Percival had opened the proceedings on the part of the crown, Mr. ſerjeant Adair roſe to ſtate to the jury the nature of the charge, and of the evidence to be adduced, in the ſame manner as the attorney-general had done on the trials of Mr. Hardy and Mr. Tooke. When the ſerjeant had finiſhed his addreſs (which occupied four hours and a half in the delivery) the examination of the evidence for the crown was proceeded upon till half paſt nine, when the court adjourned. The whole of the ſecond day was employed in the examination of the evidence. This was cloſed on the third day, when Mr. Erſkine addreſſed the jury in behalf of the priſoner. When he had finiſhed, the witneſſes were examined; and the examination being finiſhed about ſeven in the evening, Mr. Gibbs was likewiſe heard in favour of the priſoner

* Meſſieurs Steinmetz, Carter, Stonard, Nicol, and Ainſley, were on the trial of Mr. Hardy.

priſoner for about half an hour, when the lord preſident addreſſed the priſoner, by obſerving, that he had a right to make any obſervations he pleaſed in his own defence; and that if he wiſhed to exerciſe that right, then was the time. Mr Thelwall ſaid, that he had ſo much confidence in the exertions and abilities of his counſel, and in the honeſty, candour, and integrity of an Engliſh jury, that he entertained no doubt, that, after they had conſidered his caſe, he ſhould receive their acquittal, and that therefore he ſhould trouble them with no obſervations. On the fourth day, Mr. ſerjeant Adair entered upon his reply. When he had finiſhed, the lord preſident proceeded to ſum up the evidence, which he reſumed the next day, the laſt and fifth of the trial. It is impoſſible to follow his lordſhip through this charge; but one or two particulars of it, and the concluſion, will ſerve to give an idea of the great impartiality, candour, and liberality with which his lordſhip conducted himſelf thro' the whole of theſe important trials. Alluding to the evidence which had been adduced (and that even by ſome of the witneſſes for the crown) in favour of the priſoner; namely, his uniform declarations againſt any violent meaſures, and his general good character; alluding, likewiſe, to a letter which he had written, but not ſent to America, and which contained ſome unguarded expreſſions, as, that he was a republican, a ſans culotte, &c. and alluding likewiſe to the ſtrongeſt evidence that had been brought againſt the priſoner, that of one Taylor, who had been lately convicted of bigamy (*See page* 388); who had ſworn, on his ſecond marriage that he was a bachelor, although his firſt wife was ſtill living; and who had ſworn in court that he had never gone by any other name than that of Taylor, although two witneſſes had proved, that they had never known him by any other name than that of Roberts—alluding to theſe circumſtances, his lordſhip ſaid, that the letter to his friend in America, went little farther than to ſhew his activity, and deſcribe himſelf in a more unfavourable light than might be expected from the good character given of him by ſome reſpectable perſons. However, a general abuſe of himſelf would not convict him of any particular crime, any more than a general abuſe of him by others. He obſerved, that the evidence of John Taylor, the ſpy, was rendered unſatisfactory, by the teſtimony of two perſons, Tepham and Philips, who had directly contradicted his aſſertion upon oath, that he had never gone by any other name than Taylor. This moſt undoubtedly, he ſaid, muſt materially affect the evidence of Taylor; to what extent it ſhould affect it, was for the jury to judge; as the contradiction did not affect his competency, though it certainly militated againſt his credit. On all diſputable points it ought to have very extenſive effect on his evidence; but where confirmed by other witneſſes, there ſeemed to be no reaſon for not giving credit to him. It was entirely for the jury to determine how far this had been the caſe, and what degree of credit they could give to the evidence of ſuch a man. After the evidence had been recapitulated, the lord preſident proceeded to make ſome remarks on the whole of it, as follows:

'This, gentlemen, is the whole of the evidence on the part of the priſoner, which has been given in a manner well calculated to make an impreſſion on you, and it certainly deſerves to have great weight with you. The evidence being brought to a concluſion, you will ſoon have to diſcharge that part of the duty allotted to you in this momentous caſe. I ſhall not trouble you at great length:—The law, or the caſe, ſeems to me to be ſufficiently clear; it is decided by all authorities, that a perſon who undertakes to overturn the government of the country, and to depoſe the king, certainly muſt have in view the deſtruction of the king: this has therefore been conſidered as a manifeſt overt act of compaſſing and imagining the death of the king.

'The real queſtion is a queſtion of fact. My opinion is, that the ſubſtantial overt acts charged in the indictment are the firſt and the ſecond, which ſay that they conſpired to call a convention for the purpoſe of overturning the government, and publiſhed certain writings to ſtimulate the minds of the people to a diſaffection to the government. If the firſt be proved, it is ſufficient; for though there are nine overt acts in the indictment, yet any one of them ſubſtantiated will prove the indictment. The late events ſeem to have laid out of the queſtion the two next overt acts. As to the remaining five, ſuppoſing them to be well laid as to form, in point of evidence the matter of them ſeems to me to be circumſtances belonging to the conſpiracy, rather than independent overt acts of the treaſon charged.

'That the priſoner has participated in the general deſign of raiſing a convention, is clear. For what purpoſe that convention

tion was to be called, is the question you are to determine, and this is a pure matter of fact, and must be proved by those who conduct the prosecution; it lies wholly on them to make it out; they say, they can do so. You will, therefore, turn your attention to the circumstances of the evidence: they principally arise out of the written transactions of the London societies, and the different country societies with whom they were associated. These transactions have been laid before you at considerable length; you have heard them unfortunately read to you several times, and commented on more than twice: a few more observations must be made on them. By way of preliminary, I shall say to you, as I have said on a former occasion, that in looking into these transactions, and discovering a variety of violent and indecent expressions, you ought not to proceed in your judgment on any nice criticism, nor adopt any conclusions which are to be derived from subtle and refined observations on particular expressions.

'Men express themselves with more or less accuracy according to their various attainments in the knowledge of the niceties of language, and the difference in their temper at the time of composing their writings. You ought not, therefore, to draw from critical examinations of particular expressions to the prejudice of the prisoner.

'That these societies had circulated with avidity works of the most pernicious tendency, and that this circulation had produced great mischief, was doubtless, he thought, apparent from the evidence; and it was no less obvious that a convention was to be assembled, with the ostensible object of a parliamentary reform, and that the prisoner had been concerned in planning the meeting. But the prosecution charged upon him a distinct fact, namely, that he did so, meaning thereby to overturn the government, and depose the king.

'The address to the jacobins and convention of France; the answer given to the Stockford society pretty strongly indicated that there was somewhere a plan of revolution up to the full extent charged in the indictment; and it was farther remarkable, in confirmation of this idea, that not one expression was to be found throughout the whole proceedings of the societies which contained any sentiment of respect or attachment to the king, or the house of lords. On the contrary, when they are asked if they mean to substitute monarchy, they give an evasive answer, and say, that that event must be decided upon by a convention. The second projected convention was to be convened also, it appears, after it had been resolved not to apply to parliament. If then the object of the societies were a reform of parliament by legal and peaceable means, what was the convention to do, unless it applied to parliament? and just at this time, you will recollect, that arms were adopted, and discipline commenced.

'The reasons given by Mr. Tooke for the addresses to France, and the countenance given to Paine's works, he conceived unsatisfactory; and that the approval of the conduct of Frost and Barlow while at Paris, was a very strong presumption against the views of the society. The strongest force, however, of the prosecution, struck him to be in the conduct of the convention in Scotland, where, instead of any mention of parliamentary reform, the most violent and independent measures were adopted.

'In the application of the evidence to the prisoner, they would first observe his connection with the Southwark society, and then his conduct in the London corresponding society. The strength of his defence is, however, in the circumstance of the acquittal of the other persons charged with a conspiracy. You must necessarily find him, if guilty, conspiring with some others, and hence arises a violent chasm which you will be obliged to fill up. You must examine the whole evidence, and satisfy your conscience. If you believe that a conspiracy existed to overturn the constitution, and that the prisoner was connected in it, you must find him guilty; if, on the contrary, you think that no such conspiracy existed, or that the prisoner had no concern in it, or even if you have a doubt of these circumstances, you will find him Not Guilty.'

The jury retired at five minutes past twelve o'clock to deliberate upon their verdict.

During the absence of the jury, the lord president said, that when the verdict was given in the last case, the court were most grossly insulted by a number of people, who had thought proper to express their approbation of the verdict in the most disorderly manner; no court of justice could, consistently with its dignity, suffer either approbation or disapprobation of a verdict to be conveyed in that manner: he therefore gave notice, that if he saw any persons whatever conducting themselves in that manner, whichever way the verdict of the jury might be, he would instantly commit them.

At ten minutes before two, the jury

returned and pronounced a verdict of—NOT GUILTY.

Notwithstanding the warning given by the lord president, many persons in court thought proper to demonstrate their satisfaction at the verdict, by huzzas and clapping of hands.

When the tumult had a little subsided, Mr. Thelwall addressed the court and the jury. He said, the sensations which he felt at that moment could not be expressed by any language he was master of; but he could not resist the impulse which prompted him to say a few words: 'If,' said he, 'my lord and gentlemen of the jury, a man, so destitute of friends and of wealth—if a man, so unconnected as I am—if a man, prosecuted with all the weight of power—if a man, misrepresented and calumniated as I have been—I say, my lord and gentlemen—if such a man, under all these circumstances, finds himself declared innocent by a jury of his country, must he not feel that justice is inherent in the very soil of Britain?

'My lord, for above a twelvemonth past I have been harassed and goaded by persons whose object it was, perhaps, to drive me beyond the limits of propriety; and, I confess, that, irritable as I am by nature, I have, in many instances, been driven to intemperance in my expressions; expressions which had no other object than to give vent to the warmth of the moment.

'My lord, with respect to the conspiracy and treason with which I have been charged, I solemnly protest I never had such an imagination. I appeal to my country and to posterity; and may that posterity pronounce my memory infamous, if the declarations which I am now making, are not justified by the whole of my conduct through life.

'My lord, so far was I from having any idea of recurring to force in support of the cause in which I was engaged, that every possible exertion of mine was used to prevent the persons with whom I was associated from adopting those violent measures, to which the Lynams, the Taylors, and the other informers, who insinuated themselves into the society, would have urged them.

'My lord, this was the weapon [taking up a pen], and no other, which I wished to employ: I have always had a kind of instinctive repugnance to every measure that has a tendency to anarchy and violence. The use of pikes or of guns was far, very far from my mind; and I hope, nay I think, that those instruments of destruction, employed in destroying mankind, in making the wife a disconsolate widow, and depriving the orphan babe of its protection, will soon be disused, and that peace and love will reign throughout the world.

'My lord, I perfectly agree with the noble judge who summed up the evidence, that the letter addressed to a person in North America requires explanation—My lord, after what I have said of my temper, I will not say that there never was a moment of my life in which I might not have written such a letter, but I am sure that I never read it after I had written it, or I should have consigned it to the flames. I perceive, and I am ashamed when I confess it, that there are many violent expressions in it, and conveyed in bombastic and absurd terms; but this letter was never sent.

'My lord, permit me to return my most grateful thanks to the court and the jury for the candour and patience which they have manifested during the whole of this trial. There are some particulars in my conduct, which, I am conscious, require explanation. I will take an opportunity of giving it, at a proper time, in, I hope, a temperate manner."—He was proceeding, when he was addressed by the chief baron (Macdonald). 'Mr. Thelwall, I did not prevent you from giving way to your feelings upon this occasion; nor from returning thanks to the jury, by whom you have been tried: their conduct, in the discharge of so severe a duty, calls for the particular thanks of the court as well as yours; but, Mr. Thelwall, you heard the opinion given in the case of Mr. Holcroft, when the court declared, that after his acquittal, he could not be permitted to address the court; your own good sense must point out to you, that it can be attended with no good effect; and, therefore, I am sure you will not give me the pain which I must feel, if compelled to repeat this admonition; you have been acquitted by your country—I hope you will prove to that country, and to that posterity to which you have appealed, that the declarations you have made this day are true; and that you will in future conduct yourself with temperance and propriety.'

Mr. Thelwall, having again thanked the court and jury, was discharged.

The court met again on Monday, December 15, when the following gentlemen

men were ſworn as a jury, on the trials of John Ritcher and John Baxter, charged with high treaſon:

Robert Batſon, William Harwood, James Haygarth, Robert Lewis, Thomas Wood, Henry Bullock, John Powzy, Hugh Ronalds, Henry Capel, John Leader, Jere. Blakewood, Robert Kilby Cox, eſquires.

The priſoners being arraigned in the general way, the attorney-general ſaid, 'Gentlemen of the jury, in the circumſtances in which I have now the honour of addreſſing you, I think myſelf juſtified in forbearing, at preſent, to bring forward any evidence againſt the priſoners at the bar.'—The lord chief baron then ſaid, 'Gentlemen, there being no evidence brought againſt the priſoners, you will of courſe find them Not Guilty.' The verdict of Not Guilty being given and recorded, the chief baron ſaid, 'Theſe gentlemen having been found not guilty, are now diſcharged from the bar.'

John Baxter ſaid, 'gentlemen of the jury, I beg leave to return you my thanks;' and was proceeding, when he was informed by the chief baron, 'That being now diſcharged from the bar, he had no right to ſay any thing to the court.'

The court was then adjourned to Friday the 26th of December.

AFFAIRS OF FRANCE.

Continued from Page 384.

SOME days after the decree of the 15th of October, reſpecting the popular ſocieties, the convention were employed in taking meaſures to maintain the aſcendency they had acquired; to introduce the principles of law, juſtice, and regularity into their proceedings; and, particularly, in inveſtigating the conduct of Carrier, one of their members, who was charged with having, while on a miſſion to Nantes, been guilty of the moſt enormous cruelties.

On Tueſday, October 28, the convention decreed, that every denunciation againſt a repreſentative of the people ſhall be henceforth brought before the committees of ſafety and legiſlation, and that the ſame ſhall be delivered to the accuſed before the report follows; alſo that the report ſhall be made each time by a commiſſion of twenty-one members, choſen by ballot.

On the 29th, the preſident announced to the convention that another million of florins, and a great number of *ſilver ſtaints*, had arrived from Belgium.

An extraordinary ſitting was held in the evening to ballot for a committee of twenty-one members to enquire into the conduct of Carrier.

On the 30th, the following letter, from the repreſentatives with the army in Spaniſh Navarre, was read to the convention.

'Citizens colleagues,

'Attacks were made on the 17th and 18th inſtant, [October] along a line of upward of forty leagues in extent, and upon twelve different points. The Spaniards were ſtationed on heights, which were extremely well fortified. All their entrenchments near Beddadite, Cubon, Villanueva, &c. were carried with the bayonet, and the works deſtroyed which they had laboured upwards of a whole twelvemonth to erect.

'The enemy had 1500 men killed, and an equal number of priſoners. The number of the latter would have been much greater had not the enemy's flight been too precipitate. It was favoured by a thick fog.

'We carried all the enemy's poſts, took fifty pieces of cannon, two pair of colours, and a great quantity of proviſions and military ſtores. The enemy had ſtill time to ſet ſeveral magazines on fire. The beautiful cannon foundries at Equi and Orbayecette, erected by the Spaniſh government, at an expence of many millions, are now in our poſſeſſion, and all Spaniſh Navarre may be conſidered as ours. Our loſs does not exceed fifty men.

'The intention was to ſurround the whole Spaniſh army, and afterward to oblige them to ſurrender themſelves as priſoners of war; but one of our columns, which was to co-operate in the execution of this plan, arrived a day later than the time fixed. Thus the Spaniards, favoured by a thick fog, had time to retire to Sangonella, though in great diſorder.

(Signed) BEAUDOR and GARREAU.'

On the 31ſt, the repreſentatives of the people with the army of the North, ſent an account of an advantage obtained over the Britiſh troops between the Waal and the Rhine, in which five hundred priſoners, four pieces of cannon, and a pair of colours were taken, and the emigrant legion of

Rhoan almoſt totally deſtroyed. Of four hundred men of this legion not ſixty eſcaped. Sixty-nine of them, taken priſoners, were ſhot according to the law againſt emigrants.

On the 5th of November, Bentabolle denounced a ſpeech made by Billaud de Varennes in the jacobin club, as tending to excite revolt. This produced a warm debate, which was often interrupted by clamour and diſorder.

Billaud avowed the ſpeech he had made in the jacobin club. He ſaid, that counter-revolutioniſts were rearing their heads, that known ariſtocrats were releaſed from priſon, and known patriots taken into cuſtody. Under ſuch circumſtances, it was the duty of every man to warn the people of their danger. It was the ſlumber of men over their rights that conducted them to ſlavery.

Tallien replied, and went over his uſual train of invectives againſt the jacobins, and the accomplices of Robeſpierre.

Bourdon of Oiſe deprecated theſe perſonal debates. 'It was melancholy for the French people to ſee their repreſentatives agitated by a few men, who, becauſe they hated one another, wiſhed the whole republic to take part in their quarrel.' Let the right hand of the convention reſtrain the one, and the left the other.

Bentabolle ſaid, it was impoſſible for the convention to maintain order, when repreſentatives of the people were preaching up revolt.

Clauzel put an end to the debate by moving, that the three committees ſhould prepare meaſures to prevent any repreſentatives of the people from preaching up revolt againſt the convention.

On the 6th, Lequinio, after a ſpeech in which he declared that he had withdrawn himſelf from the jacobins, and from every other ſociety, and that the jacobins would conduct themſelves as they ought to do, if repreſentatives of the people were no longer to attend their club, moved, 'That repreſentatives of the people ſhould be prohibited from being members of any political ſociety while the convention continued to ſit.' This brought on a warm perſonal debate, which Bourdon of Oiſe again put an end to by the order of the day.

The preſident announced, that twelve members of the jacobin club deſired to be admitted to preſent a petition. The petition being examined, and found to be in point of form agreeable to law, viz. not in the name of the club, but in the name of the individuals who preſented it, was read:

'Citizen repreſentatives, The citizens underſigned, members of the ſociety of the friends of liberty and equality, ſitting at the jacobins, inviolably attached to the national convention, the ſole centre of the government and hope of the public ſafety, have been deeply afflicted by learning that ſome members of their ſociety have been accuſed of a great crime. A repreſentative of the people, whoſe words have great weight, as coming from a member of the committee of general ſafety, has denounced a correſpondence between the jacobins and a committee of emigrants in Switzerland. The jacobins ought not only to be pure, but acknowledged to be ſo. They deſire that a report may be made upon this ſubject, in order that the guilty, if any of them be guilty, may be puniſhed.'

The Preſident. 'It is by their love for the national repreſentation, and their ſubmiſſion to the laws, that true patriots are diſtinguiſhed. It is by ſetting the example of this love and ſubmiſſion, that the jacobins will render themſelves, as heretofore, formidable to the enemies of liberty.'

After ſome debate, the convention paſſed to the order of the day, on the ground that no citizens had a right to call for an account of what members of the convention ſaid in their places.

On Friday, November 7, Breard informed the convention that the diviſion of the French fleet which the Britiſh fleet had for ſo many months blockaded in the gulf of Juhau, had returned to Toulon, without meeting with any ſhip either Britiſh or Spaniſh.

He alſo acquainted the convention, that the works were carrying on with ſuch ardour and activity at Breſt, that that ſingle department would be able to furniſh, next ſpring, 50 ſhips of the line, ſix of which would be of 120 guns. (Loud applauſes.)

On Saturday, November 8, Richard informed the convention, that the important fortreſs of Maeſtricht had ſurrendered on the 24th Brumaire to the army of the Sambre and the Meuſe. (Loud plaudits.) He afterward acquainted the convention, that Rheinfels, with the town of St. Goar, the only place, except Mentz, which the empire poſſeſſed on the left bank of the Rhine, had ſurrendered to the French arms. 'The committee of public ſafety,' he exclaimed, 'are at this moment employed in an important operation, and ſo ſecretly do they wiſh to conduct it, that they are obliged to avoid every thing that is likely to

to lead to a conjecture of the object which they wish to attain. They therefore request that the convention will authorize them to appoint two deputies with prev.r power. This mark of confidence, they hope, will not be refused.' The convention immediately decreed, that the committee should be allowed to appoint two deputies.

On Sunday, Nov. 10, in the evening, the jacobins had collected in the Tuileries, the Palais Royal, and other public places. They were charged with attempting to excite the people to insurrection in order to save Carrier, respecting whom the report of the commission was known to be ready. A violent contest ensued, some crying out for the jacobins, and others for the convention. The parties came to blows. The hall of the jacobin club was assaulted. The women who filled the galleries were very roughly treated. Stones were thrown, and the windows broken. The committees of public and general safety were obliged to interpose; and the populace withdrew, exclaiming that they would have no more jacobins, no more of those men of blood, who were in constant opposition to the representatives of the people. Before eleven at night all was perfectly quiet. But the irritation produced by this event broke out the next day as soon as the convention met.

Duhem. 'When the patriots are assassinated at Paris, they may well be assassinated elsewhere.'

A violent agitation ensued, and some people in the galleries making use of menacing expressions and gestures, a great number of members rose at once to demand that they should be punished.

Thibaut. 'Whatever be the question, the convention must not suffer itself to be menaced.'

The President announced, that he had ordered the offenders to be taken into custody.

Duhem. 'The moment is come, citizens colleagues, to enquire into your real situation. Some persons, by calumniating patriots, openly stride to a counter-revolution. You know what happened yesterday among the jacobins; you have heard with what rage they attempted to butcher the purest patriots, women and children. I ascribe this to the denunciation made to the convention, of the jacobins having carried on a correspondence with the emigrants in Switzerland. I demand, that the correspondence be read, that the secret be unravelled which tended to produce misfortunes. I hold in my hands the proofs to convict those ruffians, who were at the head of the conspiracy: they had not only raised their plan of butchery against individual citizens, but even levelled it at the representatives of the people. 'A ruffian has been set at liberty who was in the act of seizing a deputy with a murderous hand. The people ought to learn, at last, to what dangers those are exposed who devote themselves to freedom, and what are the libels in which the people are spirited up to assassinate them. Are there conspirators among the jacobins? A list of them has been delivered to the public functionaries. Punish those among them who are guilty, but never suffer the jacobins to be attacked in a mass. Had the deputies appeared, during the tumult last night, at the head of the armed force in the hall of the jacobins, they would have heard the wounded and maimed patriots exclaim 'long live the republic! long live the convention!' They would have seen how the patriots (the jacobins) took the assassins who had been seized, under their protection, and put the cap of liberty on their heads, to rescue them from punishment.'

Clauzel, in the name of the committee of general safety.—'Your committee had no sooner been informed of the riot against the jacobins, than all the other committees were instantly assembled, and the armed force put in requisition. The latter dispersed the rioters. The members of the commitee of safety even hastened on horseback to the spot where the riot had taken place.'

Duroy. 'Last night, when I left the committee of public succour, I met a woman, quite streaming with blood. She told me that she had been assailed by some banditti who were marching against the jacobins. In the street of Rue St. Honore, I fell in with about thirty persons, who insulted every body, and pelted the people with mud, &c. Several of those ruffians vociferated, the convention for ever! the republic for ever! All these scenes make me conclude that we have neither a police nor government, otherwise women, children, and aged persons, would not be thus savagely insulted; the guilty would have been put under arrest: the wives and children of the defenders of the country would not have been suffered to remain so long under the daggers of assassins; and the sanctuary, where

where peaceable citizens deliberate on the welfare of the country, would not have been stained with blood.

Reubell. "What happens here this day, is only in consequence of what happened for several months back. Have you forgot those men who came to this bar to make a motion, tending to conduct you to the scaffold? Whence has tyranny got her myrmidons?—From the jacobins. Who has filled the republic with mourning, and rendered her government odious?—The jacobins. And hark! if this day you do not feel courage enough, and declare yourselves with energy, the republic is undone.

After a long debate the convention decreed, that the committees should make a report on the correspondence which the jacobins carried on with the emigrants in Switzerland.

On Tuesday, Nov. 12, the sitting was still more stormy than the last. Amid the tumult it was announced, with universal applause, that the committee of twenty-one had finished their labours, respecting the accusation of Carrier and the committee of Nantes. The reporter then made the report, which contained all the horrors of the conduct of Carrier.

Carrier requested to be permitted to defend himself, and permission being granted, he read a long speech in writing. He spoke in it of the capitol, of the Tarpeian Rock, of the laurels gained by him. "I have saved the country," said he; "when I arrived at Nantes, the banditti consisted of 160,000 men, and I reduced them to 300. Those who accuse me are, Chouans, Vendemen, royalists, aristocrats, fanatics, and moderates; if they attack me, they attack the national representation. If they try me, all is undone; then the ancient committees, the convention, the 14th of July, the 5th and 6th of October, the 10th of August, the 2d and 3d of November, the people, nay, Liberty herself, will be brought to trial.

"I denounce to all the universe, the president, the public accuser, the substitute, the jury of one of the sections of the revolutionary tribunal, and the witnesses and the people who shall be present at the proceedings, as Chouans and Vendeemen. You call me guilty; but you do not remember the proscriptions of Marius and Sylla, the wars of the league, the massacres of St. Bartholomew, and the barbarities exercised by the people of of La Vendée themselves."

Carrier having finished a long and violent speech, the convention decreed: "That there was room for accusation against Carrier, and that this deputy be provisionally put under arrest, at his own house, and guarded by four gens d'armes. The hall resounded with the shouts of *Vive la Convention*, which were repeated in the court-yard and in the garden.

On the 12th, Laignelot moved, in the name of the four committees,

I. That the sittings of the jacobin society are provisionally suspended.

II. The hall shall be shut, and the keys deposited with the secretary of the committee of general safety.

III. The administrative commissaries of the police, and the tribunals, are charged with the execution of this decree.

On Thursday, Nov. 13, Carrier, by letter, requested to be allowed a secretary, and to be permitted to see his friends in the presence of four gens d'armes; which request, after some discussion, was agreed to.

On Friday Nov. 14, Cadroy proposed the plan of a decree as follows: The popular societies are under the special protection of government. The popular societies do not govern, neither do they deliberate. They are forbidden to exercise any act of administration, and every public function. Their organization, papers, and registers, are liable to the examination of the constituted authorities. No one of them has any ascendency over the others; they are insulated and independent of each other. No one of them can take a particular denomination, consequently it cannot call itself "The Society of Jacobins, of Feuillans, Cordeliers, &c." The house occupied by the ci-devant society of jacobins, is to be converted into a manufactory of arms. The national agent of each district, and the revolutionary committees, shall each decade apprise the convention of all that relates to the police of the popular societies, and of public security, as well as of the progress of the public sentiment. They shall, in the course of the ensuing month, transmit to the convention a list of the names of all public functionaries, civil and military, and of the contractors, and those employed in the requisitions, with the state of their property, both before and since the revolution. They shall also point out the places of their residence, and shall describe their moral conduct and their profession. The committees of the convention shall make successive statements of the political situation of France, and of the

the execution of the laws. The discussion of provisions, agriculture, public instruction, finances, and commerce, is constantly the order of the day. The national representatives on mission in the departments, shall state their operations in a direct way to the convention; and at the opening of each sitting, their correspondence shall be read. The committees of public safety, general security, and legislation, shall present, within ten days, a plan of a law on the nature and discipline of the popular societies, on the powers of the representatives engaged in mission, and on the means of so directing them, as that the happiness of the people should be preserved. The speech with which the above was introduced was ordered to be printed, and the plan itself referred to the committee.

[To be continued.]

THE THEATRE.

ON Saturday, December 6, a new Comedy, under the title of THE TOWN BEFORE YOU, was produced at Covent-garden theatre. It comes from the pen of Mrs. Cowley. There is something in the design more novel than in the characters or conduct of the piece. The aim is to prove that vice is more allied to poverty than wealth. The characters were thus represented:

Sir Robert Floyer, Mr. Quick; sir Simon Asgill, Mr. Powell; Asgill, Mr. Pope; Conway, Mr. Holman; Pancourt, Mr. Munden; Tippy, Mr. Lewis; Acid, Mr. Bernard; Humphrey, Mr. Fawcett. Lady Horatia, Mrs. Pope; lady Charlotte, Miss Chapman; lady Elisabeth, Miss Hopkins; Georgina, Miss Wallis; Mrs. Pancourt, Mrs. Mattocks; Mrs. Clement, Mrs. Platt; Jenny, Mrs. Martyr.

The plot is as follows: Sir Robert Floyer, a Welch knight, weak, vain, ostentatious, but generous, spirited, and tenderly attached to his daughter, Georgina, comes to town on the invitation of the county member, with the view of getting a place. He prides himself much upon having been high sheriff of the county, on which occasion he was knighted.

Pancourt and Tippy are two swindlers, the former a scholar, who has spent all his wife's fortune, and uses her extremely ill; the other a man of genius, but whose best fortune it is to bear an exact similitude to a peer, and who being often mistaken for his lordship, turns the resemblance to his own advantage. These sharpers lay their snares for the Welch knight; and their successes and detection form a chief part of the comic part of the piece, together with Humphrey's oddities. The knight's daughter Georgina is a sprightly, giddy girl, and her lover Conway has some scenes which contain interest and pleasantry.

Lady Horatia and her lover Asgill furnish the upper plot. This lady is a widow and a statuary. She is sensible of Asgill's merits, but conceals her partiality, till she hears that, reduced to distress, he, in a fit of desperation, had entered himself on board a man of war. She then, before his uncle sir Simon, in a burst of tenderness and sympathy, acknowledges her passion; after which sir Simon informs her Asgill's poverty was merely ideal, and an imposition of his contrivance to try her affection.

Jenny, the chamber-maid, whose brother Tippy is, carries on a plot to have him married to Georgina, which however miscarries, and a union takes place between lady Horatia and Asgill, and Georgina and Conway.

Acid is an ignorant connoisseur, who threatens to Peter Pindar the whole royal society.

Mrs. Pancourt, whose virtue is proof against distress, and who suspects the designs of her husband against Georgina, assumes the garb and manners of a Savoyard, and attracting the attention of that young lady, under pretence of telling her fortune, warns her against the arts of the confederates. Her services are discovered to the knight, who rewards her with his gratitude and protection.

This comedy being withdrawn for some time, made it appearance again on Monday, December 22, with considerable improvements, and some judicious alterations. *Acid* is entirely cut out, and Tippy made a connoisseur.

On Saturday, December 20, was performed at the theatre royal Drury-lane, a new Opera, called THE CHEROKEE, the production of Mr. Cobb. The dramatis personæ are as follows:

British.—Colonel Blandford, Mr. Kelly; Henry, master Walsh; Officer, Mr. Cook; Average, Mr. Hollingsworth; Jack Average, Mr. J. Bannister; Rambl[illegible]

ble, Mr. Dignum; Serjeant Bluſter, Mr. Banniſter; Jeremy, Mr. Suett:—Zilipha, Mrs. Crouch; Eleanor, Signora Storace; Fanny, Miſs Leak; Winifred, Mrs. Bland.

Indians.—Malooko, Mr. Barrymore; Zamerin, Mr. C. Kemble; Ontavo, Mr. Sedgewick; Patowmac, Mr. Caulfield; Indian, Mr. Phillimore: Partheca, Mrs. Bramwell.

The fable is as follows: Colonel Blandford, an Engliſh officer of great worth, having ſuffered ſeverely by the iſſue of a law-ſuit, leaves his country to ſerve in America during the time of its connexion with this country. His wife Harriet, unable to bear the abſence of her huſband, follows him to America, and with her child falls into the hands of the Cherokee Indians, the chief of whom, Malooko, conceives a partiality for her, and endeavours to make her the partner of his bed. Malooko is the bitter enemy of the Engliſh; and, though a peace was on the eve of being adjuſted between the tribes and the Americans, he endeavours as much as poſſible to prevent his countrymen from burying the hatchet of war. Harriet, during her reſidence with the Cherokee, aſſumes the name of Zilipha. Malooko ſeems particularly hoſtile to the ſon of Zilipha, who is a fine ſpirited boy, and whom Malooko has determined to ſacrifice, unleſs the mother will aſſent to his wiſhes. Zamorin, a well diſpoſed Indian, to ſave little Henry from the vengeance of Malooko, diſguiſes himſelf, and conveys the boy to a ſettlement of Europeans. Blandford and Malooko meet at the place where the ceremony of burying the hatchet of war is to be performed; but Malooko incites a large body of Indians to object to the adjuſtment, and carry on hoſtilities. In the courſe of the war, Blandford and his friends are ſurpriſed by Malooko and his party. Blandford is taken into a cavern, where he is left in chains, after being aſſured by Malooko that no human power ſhould enable him to eſcape. This confinement of Blandford takes place after the ſurpriſe of finding his beloved wife in the wilds of America. The wife is taken away to be rendered the miſtreſs of Malooko. Little Henry has diſcovered that his father is confined in the cavern; and having in vain endeavoured to get ſomebody to accompany him in the dangerous taſk of attempting to reconnoitre the enemy, and if poſſible extricate his father, ventures upon the perilous enterpriſe alone, only armed with his bow and arrow. The Cherokee ſentinel left to guard Blandford is an implacable foe of the Engliſh, becauſe he loſt a father in war; and he reſolves to appeaſe the ghoſt of his ſlaughtered ſire, by the deſtruction of Blandford. Juſt as this ſentinel is in the act of raiſing the hatchet to kill Blandford, little Henry, who had crept through the crevices of the ſtony cavern, aims a ſtaff at the vindictive centinel, and kills him in an inſtant. Henry then aſſiſts his father in getting off the chains by which the latter is bound, and they both climb the rocky interior, and eſcape from the hideous dungeon. Poor Harriet, however, is left in the hands of the tyrannic Malooko, who, after ſeveral defeats, is compelled to retire into the cavern. In this ſituation Zilipha, or rather Harriet, by order of Malooko, is brought forward in the cave; and when Blandford and his forces deſcend, ſhe ſtates the terms upon which Malooko conſents to make peace, which terms imply ſafe conduct of him and his party to their own ſettlement, and requiring Zilipha and her ſon as the hoſtages. Zilipha having delivered the terms preſcribed by Malooko, then addreſſes her huſband from herſelf, and exhorts him to ſubmit to no ſacrifice injurious to the honour of his country, whatever may be her fate. While Malooko is venting his rage, and declaring that inſtant deſtruction ſhall await them all, as he has laid a train of gun-powder under the cave, Blandford runs to another part of the cavern, and at the moment when a Cherokee, by order of Malooko, is going to ſet fire to the train, Blandford levels his muſquet at Malooko, and kills him at once. The Cherokees then ſurrender to the Britiſh troops, Blandford and his Harriet are re-united, and the piece concludes with the happineſs of all parties.

There is an epiſodical plot relative to a young merchant, Jack Average, and Eleanor his couſin, the daughter of old Average. This couple are betrothed to each other, but that every circumſtance make them fancy they hate each other, and they agree to relinquiſh their mutual claims; but they ſoon find that they are ſtrongly attached, and after ſome tender wrangles, they cordially unite.

The piece was well received, and, with much retrenchment, will be a favourite.

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTES.

The London Gazette, December 13.

Horſe-Guards, December 13.

BY diſpatches received from general ſir Charles Grey, K. B. dated Martinique, the 16th, 19th, and 24th of October, it appears, that the enemy from Point à-Pitre, in the iſland of Guadaloupe, made a landing at Goyave and Lamentin on the ſame iſland, on the 27th of September, and proceeded to attack the camp of Berville, under the command of brigadier-general Graham, who defended this poſition, with the utmoſt gallantry and ſpirit, until the 6th of October, when, finding his proviſions nearly exhauſted, and that he was cut off from all communication with the ſhipping, and without hopes of relief, he was obliged to ſurrender, his force being reduced to 125 rank and file fit for duty.

By this unfortunate event the whole of the iſland of Guadaloupe, except fort Matilda, where lieutenant-general Preſcott commands, fell into the hands of the enemy.

[Here follows the articles of capitulation; the ſubſtance of which is, that the garriſon, in conſideration of their gallant defence, ſhould be allowed the honours of war; and that they ſhould be ſent to Great Britain. It was required, that the inhabitants co-operating with the army, whether white or free people of colour, having taken the oaths to his Britannic majeſty, ſhould be treated as Britiſh ſubjects. This was refuſed; but a covered boat, to be held ſacred, was allowed to the general.]

The Britiſh forces, which were taken at Berville camp, conſiſt of the flank companies from Ireland, and the 39th, 43d, and 65th regiments. Their loſs in the different actions between the 27th of September and 6th of October, as nearly as could be aſcertained, amounts to two officers killed, 5 wounded; 25 non-commiſſioned officers and privates killed, and 51 ditto wounded.

Officers Killed.

Major Forbes. Lieutenant Cochran, of the 39th.

Officers Wounded.

Captain Hutton, of the artillery; capt. Cameron, of the 43d; lieutenant Keating, of the 33d; enſign Paris, of the 65th; quarter-maſter Clements, of the 39th.

Horſe Guards, Dec. 13. By diſpatches received from Lieutenant-colonel James Grant, commanding officer at Cape Nicolas Mole, in the iſland of St. Domingo, dated the 21ſt of October, it appears, that the town and poſts of Leogane, in the ſame iſland, had fallen into the hands of the forces of the convention, aided by a numerous corps of revolted negroes.

From the London Gazette, December 20.

Horſe-Guards, Dec. 20. The following report has been received from general Walmoden by his royal highneſs the duke of York, and tranſmitted by his royal highneſs to the right hon. Henry Dundas, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Head-quarters, Arnheim, December 17, 1794. The movements of the enemy, and the works carried on at Nimeguen and ſeveral other points of their line, appeared to indicate an attack; when the march of a ſtrong column yeſterday, from the environs of Emerick, to Nimeguen, left me little doubt that they had ſome immediate enterpriſe in view.

At ſix o'clock this morning, about eighty boats of various ſizes, with troops on board, came down a branch of the Waal, and were carried by the ſtream to our ſide of the river, near the poſt of Gent; where, favoured by a thick fog, they effectuated a landing, and made a vigorous attack on our battery there, which returned their fire, but could not be defended againſt their numbers, covered by a very heavy fire of ſhot and ſhells from the ſtrong batteries they had erected on the other ſide of the river.

Major Thiele, with the regiment of Stockhauſen, a battalion of that of Saxe-Gotha, and the picquets which he had called in, made an attempt to recover the battery, but he was repulſed in this attack.

In the mean time the general of infantry, Buſche, arrived, and led theſe troops to a ſecond attack, without being able to drive away the enemy: but, on receiving a reinforcement, conſiſting of the 1ſt and 3d battalions of grenadiers, he ordered a third attack to be made with the bayonet: it was executed without firing a ſhot; and the enemy, having previouſly ſpiked ſome guns in the battery, and ſet fire to a few houſes, fled with great precipitation to their boats.

General Buſche, on his return from this ſucceſsful attack, was ſtruck in his

arm and cheſt by a ball from an eight-pounder, which proved fatal in a very few minutes.

His loſs is very much to be regretted. Major Bachmeister, of the regiment of Saxe-Gotha, a very deſerving officer, fell alſo in the action.

No exact return has been received of our loſs; that of the enemy is not known, as they carried off with them their wounded, and even ſome of their dead.

The attack appears to have been made on ſeveral poſts of our line, particularly Fort St. André, Douvert, Panderon, and the Iſle of Byland.

Lieutenant-general Werneck reports, that at Byland ſome of their boats were ſunk by the fire of the batteries in attempting the paſſage of the river, and that the greateſt part of the troops on board were drowned.

(Signed) WALMODEN.

By a letter from lieutenant-general Harcourt to his royal highneſs, of the ſame date, it appears that the enemy were repulſed at Fort St. André by the Dutch troops, and that they had not ſucceeded in forcing any one of the points againſt which their attacks were directed.

CONTINENTAL ADVICES.

POLAND.

Berlin, November 15.

THE further particulars of the taking the ſuburb of Praga clearly prove with what bravery the Poles defended themſelves; but the Ruſſians, who ſtormed the entrenchments, encouraged by their officers, and animated to revenge by what had been done to their comrades and countrymen at Warſaw upon the breaking out of the revolution, mounted the Poliſh entrenchments upon heaps of dead bodies. How many Ruſſians fell in this bloody conteſt we do not learn, but the Ruſſians ſay that 12,000 Poles were killed; and of 4000 who attempted to get over the Weixel to Warſaw, only fourteen eſcaped, as the heavy artillery ſunk the veſſels in which they endeavoured to croſs that river. The number of pieces of cannon taken amounts to upward of ſeventy.

Berlin, Nov. 18. The day before yeſterday one of general Suwarrow's adjutants paſſed through here as meſſenger to the king at Potſdam, with accounts that Warſaw ſurrendered to the Ruſſian army on the 9th, on condition that the inhabitants ſhould enjoy their lives and property, and an act of oblivion be paſſed over all that had happened; all which being formally promiſed on the part of the empreſs of Ruſſia, general Suwarrow made his public entrance into Warſaw the next day.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

NOVEMBER 25.

A LETTER from Plymouth, of the 23d inſt. ſays, that on Thurſday came into the harbour, a Spaniſh ſhip, retaken in the bay of Biſcay by the Audacious of 74 guns, from the French prize-maſter of which we learn, that admiral Bligh, in the Alexander, of 74 guns, (*See page* 387.) fought with incredible bravery Le Tigre, of 84 guns, Le Jean Bart, of 84, and a frigate of 44, four hours before he ſtruck his colours, which the admiral did not do till the other four line of battle ſhips and frigates bore down, after a fruitleſs chaſe of the Canada, of 74 guns, captain Hamilton, which eſcaped. Le Tigre and Le Jean Bart were wrecks as well as the Alexander, and loſt 450 men killed and wounded. The Alexander loſt about 80 men killed and wounded; but the officers names who fell cannot be aſcertained. The French prize-maſter alſo ſays, that on the 23d of October two ſhips of the line and 16 tranſports full of troops ſailed for the Weſt Indies.

NOVEMBER 27.

A letter from Whitby, dated the 25th inſt. ſays, 'The heavy gale on the 12th of this month has proved deſtructive to the remains of that beautiful pile the Abbey church at Whitby; at ſeven in the morning the greateſt part of the weſt end gave way and fell to the ground. This beautiful ſpecimen of gothic architecture is conſequently now no more. The great window, which has long been the admiration of every perſon of taſte, for the unrivalled elegance and juſtneſs of its proportion, now lies upon the ground in ſhattered fragments.'

NOVEMBER 28.

In the court of King's Bench, on Wedneſday, upon the motion of the attorney-general, Caleb Underwood, eſq; who had been

been duly outlawed for not appearing to an indictment, charging him with aiding, aſſiſting, and comforting Mr. Pureſoy, in the wilful murder of colonel Roper, (*See page* 145), was brought into court, and placed at the bar. The indictment being read, the priſoner, by the advice of his counſel, prayed the allowance of a writ of error he had brought to reverſe the outlawry. The error was immediately aſſigned, which was, that the priſoner was out of the kingdom, namely, at Tournay in Flanders, at the time the indictment was preferred againſt him. The attorney-general, on the behalf of the crown, confeſſed, that the error aſſigned was a fact, in conſequence of which the court ordered the outlawry to be reverſed. The attorney-general then ſtated, that he had the conſent of his majeſty, in conſequence of Mr. Pureſoy being acquitted, to enter a *Nolo Proſequi* as to the priſoner. The priſoner was then ordered to put in bail before a judge, till the *Nolo Proſequi* is entered on record.

DECEMBER 7.

Poole, Nov. 30. This morning arrived in Studland Bay the Maria, capt. Randall, from Newfoundland; having ſome paſſengers on board, beſide the crew. The officers of the impreſs ſervice expecting to meet ſome reſiſtance, had called for military aid, and twenty ſoldiers armed went on board the tender, and ſailed down the harbour to meet the veſſel, when coming alongſide, and finding the people obſtinate, orders were given for the ſoldiers to fire, which they did. The pilot (then at the helm) and two other men were killed on the ſpot, and ſeven others dangerouſly wounded, one of whom is ſince dead. Lieut. Phillips and Glover, with all who were on board the tender, are taken into cuſtody, and the whole town is in the greateſt commotion.—*The Coroner's Inqueſt have ſince brought in the verdict of Wilful Murder againſt the two lieutenants.*

DECEMBER 15.

The judges have determined that all carriages, under whatever denomination, that have been at any time uſed for pleaſure, muſt pay the duty; and that innkeepers, &c. who keep any carriages more than they enter, under pretence of refuſing them only while their other carriages are under repair, muſt pay the duty for every ſuch carriage.

Monday laſt a reſpite for a month arrived at Edinburgh for David Downie, ſentenced to be executed for high treaſon.

DECEMBER 18.

The following is an accurate ſtatement of the loan, agreed for by Mr. Pitt, with the undermentioned gentlemen:

Meſſrs. Boyd, Benfield, and co.
Abraham Roberts, and co.
Peter Thelluſon, eſq.
Meſſrs. Thelluſon, brothers, and co.
Meſſrs. B. and A. Goldſmid,
George Ward, eſq.
E. P. Solomons, eſq.
Rawſon Aiſlabie, eſq.

The loan conditionally agreed for is eighteen millions for the ſervice of England, and ſix millions for that of the emperor; the terms of which, if the dividends on the latter are guaranteed by parliament, are to be as follows, viz.—For every 400l. money the ſubſcriber is to receive

£.	300	0	0	Three per cents.
	100	0	0	Four per cents.
	1	5	6	Long Annuities.

And of the Imperial ſubſcription,

£.	83	6	8	Three per cents.
	5	0	0	Annually for 25 years.

The regular dividends upon the imperial ſtock and annuity to be fully guaranteed by parliament; but if parliament ſhould not think fit to enter into ſuch guarantee, the loan is then to conſiſt of 18 millions only, on the following terms:

£.				
100	0	0	Three per cents	for each 100l. ſubſcribed.
33	6	8	Four per cents	
0	12	6	Long Annuities,	

DECEMBER 19.

Yeſterday William Bromhead, Robert Moody, Henry Hill, George Widdeſon, and William Camage, who were apprehended in May laſt at Sheffield under the warrants of the ſecretary of ſtate, for high treaſon, were, together with John Edwards and Samuel Williams, both members of the London Correſponding Society, brought to the duke of Portland's office at Whitehall, when Mr. Ford, being authoriſed by the lords of his majeſty's privy council under the act of laſt ſeſſion of parliament, diſcharged them from out of the cuſtody of the king's meſſenger, upon their entering into recognizances to give evidence againſt Henry Redhead, alias York, at the next aſſizes for the county of York.

DECEMBER 20.

An action was tried this term, in the court of common pleas, brought by miſs Jackſon, governeſs of a boarding-ſchool, at Stockwell, to recover ten guineas from the defendant, Mr. James, who had contracted

tracted to pay that ſum, in caſe he withdrew his daughter from the plaintiff's ſchool, without giving a quarter's previous notice.—Two witneſſes proved, that the uſage of this ſchool was, that in caſe the friends of a ſcholar took her away, without giving a quarter's previous notice, they were to pay a quarter's ſchooling. It was alſo ſworn, that the defendant knew of theſe terms, at the time he placed his daughter under the care of the plaintiff, and had ſeen one of her cards, in which theſe terms were expreſſed.—Some witneſſes were then to be examined, to prove the cuſtom of other ſchools; but lord chief-juſtice Eyre ſaid, that the general uſage of boarding-ſchools was of ſmall importance in this caſe, the queſtion being whether the defendant agreed to the terms ſtated by the plaintiff to be the cuſtom of her ſchool—The defence was, that the defendant did not enter into the contract ſtated by the plaintiff, and that he refuſed to ſend his daughter back, on account of the ill ſtate of her health. A medical gentleman depoſed, that the young lady was afflicted with a ſcorbutic diſorder, and that the ſmell of a *brick-kiln* produced the like complaint. (This occaſioned a loud laugh.) It was likewiſe ſtated, that there were ſeveral brick-kilns in the neighbourhood of Stockwell.—The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff, damages Ten Guineas.

DECEMBER 27.

Yeſterday morning the adjourned court under the ſpecial commiſſion for the trials for high treaſon was held at the Old Bailey, before the right hon. the lord-mayor and judge Lawrence, when the attorney-general and other law-officers attended, but no priſoner was brought to the bar, nor did either of the two who are at large (Wardle and Hodgion) appear to ſurrender and plead to their indictment, as was expected; upon which the court adjourned to the 14th of January next, the day appointed to hold the general quarter ſeſſion of gaol delivery of Newgate for London and Middleſex. The priſoners yet remaining in cuſtody on privy-council commitment are meſſrs. Stone, Rouſiel, Smith, Higgins, La Maitre, Upton, (none of whom are indicted) and Martin, whoſe trial it is expected will come on the 14th of January.

IRELAND.

Dublin, Nov. 17. This day was tried at bar, in the court of king's bench, an information filed by the attorney-general againſt Mr. M'Creary and others, proprietors and printers of the Northern Star, for the publication of a ſeditious libel, on the 19th of December 1792. This libel was the ſame with that for which Mr. Rowan was convicted, and of publiſhing which Dr. Drennan was acquitted.

Mr. O'Connor, diſtributer of ſtamps in Belfaſt, proved, that the defendants had, on the 12th of February 1792, ſworn an affidavit (according to law) that they were proprietors of the Northern Star. Another witneſs proved the publication of the paper in queſtion, at the houſe of one of the defendants, John Rabb.

The defendant's counſel inſiſted, that though the affidavit ſtated that their clients were proprietors of the paper on the 12th of February, yet that there was no proof that any of them, ſave Rabb, was ſo on the 19th of December. This objection had been offered ſucceſsfully on a former trial of the ſame defendants; but the court now declared that, having conſulted the twelve judges, they had been convinced that this evidence was ſufficient to go to the jury. The objection was therefore overruled, and the libel read.

The defendant's counſel then croſs examined the witneſſes for the crown, to prove, that the ſame production had appeared in other newſpapers, whoſe proprietors had not been proſecuted.

At three o'clock, the counſel began to ſpeak to evidence; at ſeven, the jury retired; and, after two hours deliberation, returned a verdict of *Guilty of publiſhing, but not with a malicious intent.* They were told, by the court, that a general verdict of Guilty, or Not Guilty, was the only one which could be received. The jury retired again, and returned a verdict of—*Not Guilty.*

MARRIAGES.

EARL of Mornington to madame Roan.

Peter Murray, eſq. eldeſt ſon of ſir William Murray, bart. to lady Mary Anne Hope, ſiſter of the earl of Hopetoun.

DEATHS.

MRS. Nugent, aunt to the marchioneſs of Buckingham.

Ducheſs dowager of Leeds, relict of the earl of Portmore.

Lieutenant-general Gabbit, colonel of the 66th regiment.

Sir John Stanley, bart.

Sarah lady Ballenden, wife of John Ker, lord Ballenden.

Sir

Sir James Tylney Long, bart. M. P.

Princeſs Sophia Frederica, conſort to prince Frederick of Denmark.

Rear-admiral Rowland Cotton.

Counteſs dowager of Peterborough.

Lady of ſir Edward Winnington, bart.

Major-general Alexander Stewart, colonel of the queen's royal regiment, and M. P.

PROMOTIONS.

Admiral Thomas Graves—Lord Graves of Ireland.

Admiral ſir Alexander Hood, K. B.—Lord Bridport of Ireland.

Sir Morton Eden, K. B.—Envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to the court of Vienna.

Sir James Sanderſon, knt. of London; Charles Willoughby, eſq. of Baldon Houſe, Oxfordſhire; and George William Prescott, eſq. of Theobald's Park, Herts—Baronets.

William earl Fitzwilliam—Lord-lieutenant of Ireland.

Major-general Charles Leigh—Governor of the Leeward Caribbee Iſlands.

David earl of Mansfield—Lord preſident of the council.

John earl of Chatham—Lord privy ſeal.

George viſcount Milton—a privy-counſellor.

George John earl Spencer, Samuel lord Hood, ſir Alan Gardner, knt. Charles Small Pybus, eſq. vice-admiral Philip Affleck, and vice-admiral ſir Charles Middleton, bart.—Lords of the admiralty.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

NOVEMBER 15.

John Jones, of Weverham, in Cheſhire, cotton-manufacturer.

William Bardſley, of Manchester, builder.

Thomas Baniſter, of Ince Blundell, Lancashire, tavior.

George Boyd, of Sunderland, money-ſcrivener.

John Hooper, of Bath, butcher.

Robert Meatyard, of Fiſherton Anger, in Wilts, fellmonger.

Job Gambier, of Brighthelmſton, in Suſſex, victualler.

NOVEMBER 29.

Thomas Lazenby, of the Strand, dealer in brandy.

Iſaac Scott, of Rathbone-place, merchant.

James Street, of New Sarum, Wilts, innholder.

John Ellis, of Taviſtock-ſtreet, linen-draper.

Thomas Harben, of Lewes, in Suſſex, banker.

Benjamin Croſſthwaite, of the Strand, linen-draper.

Joſeph Hall, of Margate, in Kent, wine-merchant.

Thomas Hannam, of Oxford-ſtreet, linen-draper.

William Hardy, of Virginia-ſtreet, St. George, Middleſex, maſter mariner.

William Kimberley, of New Windſor, in Berks, plumber.

Ralph Jackſon, of Wapping High-ſtreet, oil and colourman.

William Hutchinſon, of Downham, in Cambridgeſhire, farmer.

Joſeph Hirſt and William Butler Hirſt, of Elland, in Yorkſhire, cloth-merchants.

John Powell, of Rhayader, in Radnorſhire, mercer.

Bainton Leader, of Burſlem, in Staffordſhire, potter.

John Perks, of Great Saredon, Staffordſhire, money-ſcrivener.

Thomas Oliver, of Longnor, in Staffordſhire; Thomas White, and James Oliver, of Gradbitch, in Staffordſhire, cotton-ſpinners.

William Hanks, of Marlborough, in Wilts, currier.

Robert Wilſon, of Upper Thornhaugh-ſtreet, maſon.

Thomas Wigg, of Duk place, victualler.

John Bromley, purſer of the Earl of Oxford Eaſt-Indiaman, dealer.

DECEMBER 2.

Thomas Archer Simkin, of Mincing-lane, lighterman.

Edward Wilſon, of Thames-ſtreet, brandy-merchant.

John Cameron, of Union-court, Broad-ſtreet, mariner.

DECEMBER 6.

Thomas Kent, of Brighthelmſton, in Suſſex, linen-draper.

Humphrey Simmons, of Holborn, ſtationer.

George Gill, of Crookhouſe, in Yorkſhire, linen-manufacturer.

Richard Pritchett, and Moſes Sankey, of Iſlington, horſe-dealers.

Thomas Barron, of Craven-ſtreet, in the Strand, money-ſcrivener.

William Newman, of Penton-row, Walworth, braſier.

William Taylor, of Woodleſford, in Yorkſhire, potter.

Thomas

Thomas Webb, of Birmingham, plater.

Richard otherwiſe Charles Carter, of New Sarum, Wilts, innholder.

Stephen Gilbert, of Bulford, in Wilts, victualler.

Richard Marſhall, of Cottingham, in Yorkſhire, merchant.

Joſeph Sanders, of Arundel, Suſſex, woolſtapler.

DECEMBER 9.

Arthur Anthony Lovelace, of Hanway-ſtreet, Oxford-road, glaſier.

James Goodiſon, of Glaſſop, in Derbyſhire, cotton-ſpinner.

John Burton and Jeſſe Hirſt, of Manchester, timber-merchants.

James Whittaker, of Manchester, taylor.

DECEMBER 13.

William Muſton, of Smithfield, mercer.

John Goodwin, of St. Aldates, in Oxford, dealer.

Henry Bennett, of Spalding, in Lincolnſhire, carpenter.

William Farrer the younger, of Pudſey, in Yorkſhire, malſter.

John Fairweather, of Hart-ſtreet, St. George, Hanover-ſquare, ſmith.

John Deaſe Reilly, of Hatton-garden, merchant.

James Montagu, of Naſſau-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, ſcrivener.

John Harriſon, of Long Hedge Farm, in Surry, dealer.

Leſtock Peacock the younger, of Walworth, in Surry, carpenter.

Matthew Thomas, of Pall-mall, milliner.

DECEMBER 16.

John Webb, of St. John at Hackney, carpenter.

Samuel King, of Haleſworth, in Suffolk, merchant.

John Sarvis, of Falmouth, in Cornwall, grocer.

Thomas Wood the younger, of Walſall, in Staffordſhire, factor.

William Faulkner, of Manchester, fuſtian-manufacturer.

DECEMBER 20.

Thomas Jackſon, of Broad-ſtreet, Kenſington, undertaker.

Iſaac Smith, of Bridgnorth, in Salop, haberdaſher.

John Philpot, of Iſleworth, callico-printer.

James Holmes, of Arundel, in Suſſex, money-ſcrivener.

George Smyth, of Almeley, in Herefordſhire, horſe-dealer.

William Cook, of Beeſton, in Yorkſhire, dealer.

Thomas Birkas, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, ſlater.

Robert Kenyon, of Withington, in Lancaſhire, and John Ditchfield, of Manchester, merchants.

Theodore Allen, of the Strand, fiſhmonger.

John Walker, of Mirfield, in Yorkſhire, maltſter.

Andrew Dawes, of Worceſter, ironmonger.

Abraham Iſrael Nunes, of Goſwell-ſtreet-road, merchant.

James Hantler, of North-ſtreet, Marybone, carpenter.

James Porter, of Spalding, in Lincolnſhire, ſlater.

James M'Annully, of Chipping Norton, Oxfordſhire, dealer.

John Thompſon, of Oſmondthorpe, in Yorkſhire, fuſtian-manufacturer.

DECEMBER 23.

Joſeph Lingard, and Charles Lingard, of Manchester, merchants.

John Worſdale, of St. Martin's Stamford Baron, in Northamptonſhire, innholder.

Joſeph Grove, of Cateaton-ſtreet, London, victualler.

Thomas Carter, of Luton, in Bedfordſhire, dealer.

Thomas Hirſt, of Greave, in Yorkſhire, merchant.

James Wedgeberrow, of St. Peter, in Worceſter, glover.

John Lee, of Great Saffron-hill, dealer of porter.

Lullum Wood, of Northumberland-ſtreet, in the Strand, mariner.

DECEMBER 27.

John Langdale, of Manchester, merchants.

Eliſabeth Wiſburn, of Rotherham, in Yorkſhire, linen-draper.

William Underhay, of Newton Abbott, in Devonſhire, merchant.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Belſham's Memoirs of the Reign of George the Third, to 1793, 4 vol. 8vo. 1l. 4s.

Chriſtian's Companion to the Feaſts and Faſts, 12mo. 2s. 6d.

Royal Captives, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Moncrief's Inquiry into the Qualities of the Aerated Alkaline Waters, 8vo. 3s. ſewed.

Wales'

Wales' Method of finding the Longitude at Sea, 2s. 6d.

Wedding Day, a Farce, 1s.

Walker's Obſervations on the National Character of the Dutch, 1s.

Ancient and Modern State of the Pariſh of Cramond, Scotland, 4to. 15s. boards.

Hutchinſon's Hiſtory of the County of Durham, vol. 3, 1l. 1s. boards.

Arrived at Portſmouth, an Operatic Drama, 1s.

Netley Abbey, an Operatic Farce, 1s.

Eſſay on the Neceſſity of Revealed Religion, 2s. 6d. ſewed.

Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, modernized by Lipſcomb, 3 vol. ſmall 8vo. 18s.

Travell's Attempt to render the Pſalms more intelligible, 8vo. 8s. 6d.

Benſon's Sermons at Tunbridge Wells, 8vo. 7s.

Reeves' Miſcellaneous Poetry, Engliſh and Latin, 6s.

Muſgrave's Letter on the Preſent State of Public Affairs, 1s. 6d.

Eſte's Journey through Flanders, &c. to Swiſſerland, 8vo. 7s.

Contraſt, a Novel, 2 vol. 12mo. 7s.

Plutarch's Lives abridged, by Eliſabeth Helme, 8vo. 9s.

Lauderdale's (Earl of) Letters to the Peers of Scotland, 8vo. 6s.

Wynperſſe's Demonſtration of the Divinity of Chriſt, 8vo. 3s. ſewed.

Camper on the Connexion between Anatomy and Statuary, &c. large 4to. 1l. 1s.

Memoirs of the Medical Society, vol. 4, 7s. boards.

Sufanna, or Traits of a Modern Miſs, 4 vol. 12mo. 14s.

A General Bill of all the Chriſtenings and Burials, from December 10, 1793, to December 9, 1794.

Chriſtened,		Buried,	
Males -	9538	Males -	9826
Females -	9151	Females -	9415
In all	18,689	In all	19,241

Whereof have died,

Under two years	6543	Sixty and ſeventy	1280
Between 2 & five	2126	Seventy & eighty	957
Five and ten	772	Eighty and ninety	402
Ten and twenty	647	Ninety & a hundred	59
Twenty & thirty	1363	A hundred	2
Thirty and forty	1674	A hundred and one	2
Forty and fifty	1849	A hundred and two	2
Fifty and ſixty	1563	A hundred and five	1

Decreaſed in the Burials this Year 2508.

AVERAGE PRICES OF CORN.

December 13, 1794.

By the Standard Wincheſter Quarter of Eight Buſhels.

INLAND COUNTIES.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	56	9	35	1	35	6	24	5
Surry	54	8	38	0	35	8	25	10
Hertford	52	6	36	6	34	7	25	0
Bedford	50	4	36	7	31	4	21	9
Huntingdon	49	6	—	—	31	6	20	0
Northampton	52	8	38	6	31	4	21	4
Rutland	54	0	—	—	34	0	24	0
Leiceſter	56	9	—	—	35	4	23	11
Nottingham	60	9	43	0	40	9	25	2
Derby	60	5	—	—	40	10	26	5
Staffbrd	58	9	—	—	39	3	25	2
Salop	58	6	45	0	38	7	25	0
Hereford	58	3	44	10	38	10	24	5
Worceſter	60	2	—	—	39	8	29	8
Warwick	60	0	—	—	38	2	27	8
Wilts	53	8	—	—	35	6	26	0
Berks	55	7	—	—	33	5	25	1
Oxford	55	2	—	—	35	6	25	8
Bucks	50	10	—	—	32	8	23	6
Brecon	62	5	51	2	35	11	19	2
Montgomery	57	8	—	—	31	7	24	4
Radnor	60	5	—	—	35	4	22	8

MARITIME COUNTIES.

Eſſex	53	11	33	0	34	4	25	10
Kent	54	9	34	6	32	8	23	9
Suſſex	51	3	—	—	34	4	24	6
Suffolk	53	2	33	6	33	7	24	1
Cambridge	46	6	34	0	28	9	19	0
Norfolk	49	10	32	2	30	7	22	9
Lincoln	51	4	35	3	34	3	20	5
York	49	3	37	11	32	5	19	10
Durham	50	4	—	—	—	—	19	3
Northumberland	45	9	38	0	27	5	19	4
Cumberland	54	8	43	4	29	4	17	9
Weſtmorland	55	4	40	0	31	9	19	9
Lancaſter	53	9	—	—	36	11	22	4
Cheſter	50	11	—	—	40	4	20	4
Flint	57	5	—	—	40	11	—	—
Denbigh	60	1	—	—	41	6	16	10
Angleſea	50	0	—	—	30	0	14	0
Carnarvon	52	8	42	0	33	0	17	4
Merioneth	63	0	43	4	33	3	17	11
Cardigan	51	10	36	0	27	4	14	0
Pembroke	42	6	—	—	31	0	—	—
Carmarthen	54	0	—	—	29	11	14	0
Glamorgan	58	6	—	—	33	10	18	4
Glouceſter	56	10	—	—	36	5	25	10
Somerſet	58	11	—	—	35	5	20	4
Monmouth	60	11	—	—	38	8	18	5
Devon	62	0	—	—	32	0	19	1
Cornwall	54	9	—	—	28	11	18	8
Dorſet	53	11	—	—	33	7	26	3
Hants	53	6	—	—	34	10	25	3

Peck Loaf, 2s. 9d.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCKS, from NOVEMBER 27, to DECEMBER 26, 1794, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stock-Broker, No. 13, Sweeting's-Alley, Cornhill.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. consols.	5 per C. consols.	Long Ans.	Short Ans.	India Stock.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	English Lot. Tic.
27	160 ¼	68 ¼	69 a 68 ⅜	84 ¼	103 ⅛	20	9	194 ¼	18s. pr.				1 ⅛ dif.	
28	159 ¼	68 ⅛	69 ⅛ a 68 ½	84 ¼	103 ⅛	20	9	193 ½	17				1 ¼	20 14 6
29	157 ¼	68 ⅛	68 ⅜	84 ¼	103 ⅛	19 ⅞	9						1 ¼	
1	158 ¼	68 ¼	68 ⅜ a ½	84 ¼	103 ⅛	19 ⅞	9	192 ½	18				1 ¼	20 18 0
2	158 ¼	68 ¼	68 ⅜ a 67 ⅞	84 ¼	103 ⅛	19 ⅞	9	192 ¼	18	72 ¼	67 ¼	68 ¼	1 ¼	20 17 0
3	157 ¼	67 ⅞	67 ⅛ a ⅜	83 ⅞	103 ⅛	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	190 ¼	19				1 ¼	20 15 0
4	157	67 ¼	67 ⅛ a 66 ½	83	102 ⅛	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	189 ¼	19				1 ¼	20 15 0
5	158	67	67 ⅛ a 66 ½	83	101 ⅛	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	shut.	18				1	
6	159 ¼	67 ¼	shut.	83 ⅜	102	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	189 ¼	18				1	
8	159 ¼	66 ¼	66 a 65 ⅜	83	102 ¼	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	189	18				1	20 15 6
9	159 ¼	67	65 ⅞ a 66 ⅛	83 ¼	shut.	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	189 ¼		shut.		67 ⅛	1	20 14 0
10	159	67 ¼	66 ⅛ a ¼	83 ¼		19 ⅞	9	189 ¼	19		66 ⅞	shut.	1	
11	158	66 ⅞	65 ⅞ a 66 ⅛	83 ⅜		19 ⅞	9	189 ¼	18				1	20 0 0
12	157	66 ⅞	66 ⅛ a 65 ⅝	82 ¼	101	19 ⅞	8 ⅞	188 ¼	18		65 ⅛		1 ¼	20 10 6
13	155 ⅜	65	64 ⅛ a 65 ⅜	81 ⅞	100	19	8 ⅞	188 ¼					1 ⅜	20 11 0
15	155 ⅜	65 ⅛	65 ⅛ a 64 ⅞	81 ⅞	100 ½	19	8 ⅞	187 ¼		69			2	20 10 0
16	154 ¼	64 ⅞	64 ¼ a ⅜	81 ½	100	18 ½		187 ½		69			2	
17	154	64 ⅞	64 ¼ a ⅜	80 ¼	100	18 ⅜	8 ⅞	187	5				2 ¼	20 8 6
18	154 ⅜	64 ¼	64 ⅛ a ⅜	80 ¼	100	18 ⅜	8 ⅞	187	4				2 ¼	20 8 6
19	154	64 ⅜	64 ⅛ a ¼	79 ½		18 ⅜	8 ⅞	187	4				2 ¼	20 8 0
20	153 ½	64 ⅜	64 ¼	80		18 ⅜		187 ¼					2	
22	154	64 ¼	64 ¼ a ⅜	80 ⅛		18 ⅜	8 ⅞	187 ¼					2 ¼	20 5 0
23	155 ⅛	65 ⅜	64 ¼ a 65 ⅝	80 ⅜		18 ⅜	8 ⅞	189 ½	6				2 ¼	20 9 0
24	155 ⅜	65 ¼	65 ⅛ a ⅜	81		18 ⅛							2 ¼	20 10 0
25														
26														

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long and Short Annuities excepted, which are given within a sixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

INDEX *to the* NINETY-FIFTH VOLUME.

A.

Abdoulrahman, a Mooriſh King, Anecdote of 17
Accidents, fatal 67, 144, 146, 388
Adams, Mr. bailed 67
Advice, Superfluous, Reflections on 103
Agriculture, ancient State of, in England 281, 367. *See* Monks.
Air Balloons, introduced into military Operations 304
Algernon, Origin of that Name 277.
Alfred, King, his Ideas of Commerce 366
Alligator, a timid Animal 11
America, Reflections on the Diſcovery of 268
America, South, Serpents of, dreadfully venomous 11
America, United States of, Proclamation of the Britiſh Court reſpecting their captured Ships 144—American Army defeated by the Indians 148—ſummon a Britiſh Fort to ſurrender 309—Treaty concluded between Great Britain and 389—Correſpondence between Mr. Jay and Lord Grenville 445
Amhurſt, Nicholas, Anecdote of 84
Amuſements, Public, Obſervations on 89
Ancient Manners, Illuſtrations of 405
Ancients, wrote well upon Death 255
Andernach, Antiquity of 41
Andrews, Mr. Extracts from his Hiſtory 273, 363
Anecdote of Demoſthenes 5—of a Spaniſh and Mooriſh King 17—of the Burgeſſes of Glouceſter 26—of Marſhal Laudohn 28—of Phyſiognomy 39—of Rubens & Vandyck 39—of an Egyptian King 39—of Prodigality 39—of Newton and Halley 40—of Bigotry and Cruelty 40—of Racine 75—of the Attorney general Noy 84—of Mr. Amhurſt 84—of James I. 115—of the Emperor Henry IV. 116—of an unnatural Father 118—of Lewis XIV. 118, 184, 483—of the Eſquimaux 119—of Sir Robert Walpole and Mr. Shippen 245—of Marſhal Keith 246—of a Biſhop of Worceſter 274—of a Biſhop of Rocheſter 276—of Guido Aretin 368—of Voltaire 375
Anecdotes, Reflections on 153
Anecdotes of the Bite of Serpents 11—Military 17—of Julius Cæſar 17—Characteriſtic 38, 116—of Theodore King of Corſica 99—of German Literature 117—of Nobility in the early Ages 118—of Henry IV of France 153—of eminent Characters 244—of Dr. Cullen 244—of Hudſon the Dwarf 248—of Bells 363
Anglo-Saxons and Normans, Cuſtoms and Manners of the 273
Anthony and Cleopatra, poetical Characters of 293
Architecture, ancient State of, in England 365
Aretin, Guido, what he thought an Atonement for his Sins 368
Argenfels, Village of, its ancient State 44
Arrived at Portſmouth, a new operatical Drama 377
Arundell, Sir John, his Wardrobe 280
Aſiatic Reſearches, Extracts from 321
Aſſam, geographical Account of 321
Aſtley, Mr. his Royal Saloon deſtroyed by Fire 146
Attention, Power and Habit of, how acquired 4
Auguſtus Frederic, Prince, his Marriage declared invalid 144
Autumn, poetical Addreſs to 201

B.

Baddeley, Mr. his Death 389
Banſtead Downs, Account of 425
Banyan Tree, the Monarch of the tropical Woods 10
Baſalt, Account of that Stone 42
Batſon, Mr. his Method of curing the Dry Rot in Timber 249
Bear, Black, Natural Hiſtory of the 110
Bear, White, Natural Hiſtory of the 108
Beau, ancient Engliſh, his fantaſtic Appearance 279
Beehive, a remarkable 225
Belgians, Inventions of the 328
Bellegard, taken by the French 304, 306
Belle, when firſt common in Europe 363
Bigotry and Cruelty, Inſtance of 40
Biographical Regiſter for 1793, 187, 266
Black Lead, infuſible by the greateſt Heat 13—its Power in Electricity 16
Blair, Dr. his Character of Moliere 75
Bligh, Admiral, his Bravery 458
Books, beſt Method of extracting from, and epitomizing 5
Boſton, Fire at 228
Buckingham, Duke and Ducheſs of, their curious Letters 248

Buffon, M. his Theory of the Earth 79
But, humorous Complaint againſt the Word 409
Butter, Method of curing 426

C.

Calvi, taken by the Engliſh 215
Cambyſes, his Cruelty to a vanquiſhed King 39
Camels, by whom invented 330
Canons, a Palace of the firſt Duke of Chandos, Account of 233
Canons, the Seat of Mr. O'Kelly, deſcribed 325
Canute the Great, his Law reſpecting Precedence 274
Carriages, Determination reſpecting the Duty on 459
Cartwright, Mr. Extract from his Journal 107
Caves, remarkable 337
Cebu, or Wild Cotton Tree, Account of the 10
Century, Reflections on the 19th 267
Chandos, James Duke of, his Magnificence 233
Changes, Ringing of, where invented 329
Chatham, Lord, his Eloquence compared with that of Lord Mansfield 192
Character of Sir Thomas Wyat 81—of Virgil 121—of Horace 122—of Ovid 123—of Julius 292—of Anthony and Cleopatra 293
Charcoal, uſeful in Electricity 16
Charleroy, taken by the French 61
Charles IX, his Cruelty 40
Cherokee, The, a new Opera 455
Cheſterfield, Lord, his Opinion of Robertſon's Hiſtory of Scotland 168
Cheſnut Tree, Uſes of the 251—Pot Aſh obtained from 308
Children, how they bear the Thoughts of Death 255
Chimes, where invented 329
China, aſtoniſhing Diviſion of Labour in 25
Chirurgery, ancient State of 280
Chriſtian, none but a, knows what it is to be prepared for Death 255—by what the End of a rational Chriſtian is diſtinguiſhed 257
Chriſtianity, on certain ſuppoſed Effects of 30
Cider, in Glouceſterſhire, Account of 26
Cinque Ports, Account of the 369
Civil War, fine poetical Deſcription of 278
Clairfait, General, his Ill Succeſs 60, 61, 304
Clocks, firſt Appearance of, in Europe 364
Coblentz, taken by the French 384, 386
Cobourg, Prince of, defeated 61
Cœur, Humain, a term uſed by Marſhal Saxe, explained 17
Cogan, Dr. Extract from his Travels on the Rhine 31
Colibry, or Humming Bird, Account of the 11
Collier, Jeremy, Reformation of the Stage owing to 92
Cologne taken by the French 304, 352
Columbus, his Account of the Appearance of the Weſt Indies, when diſcovered 9
Commerce, Progreſs of, in England 369
Commiſſioners for putting in Force the Commercial Credit Bill, their final Report 143
Common Modes and Forms, not to be petulantly objected to 38
Common Place Books, cenſured 4
Compliance, innocent, a Duty 38
Condé, retaken by the French 303
Controverſy and Candour, Hints reſpecting 330
Converſation-Diſputes, Advice reſpecting 406
Corpſe, Arreſt of a 226
Corſica, united to the Crown of Great Britain 49—new Conſtitution of 55—Hiſtorical Account of 97—Deſcriptive Account of 173
Coughing, on the Convenience of 344
Country and Town Life, reſpective Advantages of 21
Courtier, finical, Deſcription of a 281
Cows, in the Vicinity of London 272
Cracow, taken by the Pruſſians 142
Crevecœur, taken by the French 304, 305
Crocodile. *See* Alligator
Cruelty, a prevalent Species of 359
Cruſades, an Effect of the 278
Cuba, preſent State of 9
Cullen, Dr. Anecdotes of 244
Cuzzoni, Signora, her aſtoniſhing Prodigality 39

D.

Dale, Mr. his Patriotiſm 389
Death, Sentiments concerning 161—on the Fear of 254
Demoſthenes, his Reaſons for tranſcribing Thucydides 5
Denmark, Diſpute with, adjuſted 292
Denny, Sir Barry, killed in a Duel 387
Diamonds, Invention of the Art of Cutting 281
Diſcoveries. *See* Cheſnut Tree
Diſeaſes, Obſervations on, in June 35—in July 89—in Auguſt 197—in September 265—in October 363—in November 425
Diſſenters, the Influence of Religion not greater, where there are the feweſt 33

Diſſolution, detached Thoughts on 254
D'Iſraeli. *See* Macauley
Diverſions, of the ancient Engliſh 112
Dorcheſter, in Oxfordſhire, Account of 87
Double Entendre, why particularly inſulting 92
Downie, Daniel, convicted 228—reſpited 308, 459
Dreams, Sonnet to 375
Dreſs of the Anglo-Saxons and Normans 274, 277, 279
Drury Lane, New Theatre Royal, deſcribed 185—Hiſtorical Account of the Old Theatre 345
Dry Rot, important Communications reſpecting the 249
Duel, a fatal. *See* Denny
Dumouvier, General, Memoirs of 27
Dyer, Sir James, his Rules for the Preſervation of the Kingdom 83

E.

Earth, the, how rendered the proper Habitation of Man 9
Eaſt Indies, Advices from the 146
Eccleſiaſticus, Character of the Book of 406
Edwards, Mr. Extracts from his Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies 6, 77
Electricity. *See* Black Lead *and* Charcoal
Elliot, Sir Gilbert, his Letter to General Paoli 53—accepts the Crown of Corſica for the King of Great Britain 58—his Speech to the General Aſſembly 59
Emilia Galotti, a new Tragedy 377—Prologue and Epilogue to 375
England, ancient Diverſions in 112, 296—Manners and Cuſtoms 273—Arts, Sciences, and Commerce 363—ſatirical Reflections on the modern Spectacles and Diverſions in 427
Epilogue, to Emilia Galotti 376
Epitaphs, Obſervations on 161
Eſquimaux, Tragical Combat between ſome 119
Eſſex, Walter Devereux, Earl of, Cauſes of his Ruin 82
Exchange for Merchants the firſt 329
Expletives, ſilly, ridiculed 183
Eyre, Lord Preſident, his Charge to the Grand Jury of Middleſex 294

F.

Farmer, Captain, Attempt to aſſaſſinate 147, 226
Famines, when frequent in England 281
Fineux, Sir John, his Sayings 82
Fire, at Tiverton 67—at Ratcliffe 68, 147—in the River 146—Attley's Royal Saloon 146—at Portſmouth 226—at Boſton 228—at Illeworth 228
Fitz Stephen, the Hiſtorian, Account of 112
Flamingo, Account of the 11
Flattery, remarkable among the Romans 500
Florian, M. a Spaniſh Tale by 236
Fontarabia, taken by the French 226
Foot, Mr. Extract from his Survey of Middleſex 171
Fortitude, Prevalence and Sources of 155
Foſſil Bones, Obſervations on ſome 339
France, Reflections on the Revolution in 33—Decree of the National Convention in Honour of the Supreme Being 47—and reſpecting Public Worſhip 48—Reports concerning intended Aſſaſſinations 48—Decree to give no Quarter to the Britiſh and Hanoverians 48—Dreſs decreed for the Members of the Convention 49—and a new Grammar and Vocabulary 49—new Revolution 131—Decree to arreſt Robeſpierre 134—Revolt of the Commune of Paris 131—Execution of Robeſpierre, &c. 135—Reflections on his Fall 302—General Santerre liberated 302—Proceedings to prevent, in future, the Deſpotiſm of an Individual 302—Factions in the Convention 302—Barrere, &c. accuſed 303—Reſult of theſe Conteſts 303—Advices received by the Telegraphe 303—Account of that extraordinary Mode of conveying Intelligence 281—the Name of Condé changed 303—Attempt to aſſaſſinate Tallien 303—Diſcuſſions concerning the Jacobins, &c. 303, 304, 380, 382, 451, 452, 453—Intended Maſſacre of the Nantois 303—Abolition of Nicknames propoſed 303—Motions tending to ſow Diſcord in the Convention referred to the Committee 304—Rapid Progreſs of the French Arms 304—Motions reſpecting the conquered Countries 360—Addreſs to the Nation 380—Maſſacres at Nantes 380—Feſtival of J. J. Rouſſeau 382—Decree reſpecting Denunciations of Members of the Convention 451—Proceedings reſpecting Carrier 454
France, Hiſtory of the War againſt Corſica united to the Crown of Great Britain 49—Tournay evacuated by the Allies 60—Ypres and Charleroy taken by the French 61—Prince of Cobourg defeated 61—Ill ſucceſs of General Clairfait 60, 61, 304—Oſtend evacuated 62—the French repulſed at Aloſt 62—Port-au-Prince taken by the Engliſh 62—War in Guadaloupe renewed 135, 136, 457
La Sybille Frigate taken 140—Cartel Ships detained by the French 145—

Calvi taken by the Engliſh 215—French Ships deſtroyed 220—Towns taken by the French 220, 222, 228, 303, 304, 305, 306, 382, 384, 386, 452—Ill Succeſs of the Duke of York 221, 306—French defeated near Kayſerſlautern 303—that Town taken by the Pruſſians 305—La Revolutionnaire Frigate taken 308—Sortie from Nimeguen 384—Alexander, Engliſh Man of War captured 387—Spaniards defeated in Navarre 451
Friendſhip, Ode to 203
Frendſhips, Mutability of 407
Funerals of the Anglo-Normans, Magnificence of the 275. *See* Sepulture

G.

Gaddeſdon, John de, his curious Mode of curing the Smallpox 280—diſcovers the ſuppoſed modern Art of making ſalt Water freſh 280
Gaming, prevalent among the Anglo-Saxons 276
Gardening, ancient State of, in England 281
Garrow Hills, Obſervations on the Inhabitants of the 324
George III, his Viſit to Portſmouth 67—his Speech to Parliament 67
German Empire, Proceedings of the Diet of 386
Germany, Ardour for Literature in 117
Gladiators, Combats of the 31
Glorious firſt of June, a new After Piece 45
Glouceſter, Pin Manufacture in 25—Anecdote of the Burgeſſes of 26
Glouceſterſhire, Products of 26—its ſtaple Manufacture 85—Sheep 85—Proſpects 86
Gloves, once a coſtly Article of Dreſs 279
Goar, St. taken by the French 452
Grief, Reflections on 257

H.

Halley, Dr. reproved by Sir Iſaac Newton 40
Hamertheim, deſcribed 43
Harcourt, Earl and Counteſs, their laudable Benevolence 18
Hardy, Mr. acquitted 378
Hawkeſworth, Dr. his Reflections on Hunting 358
Health, Chineſe Method of preſerving 111
Healthy Old Age, a fine Thought on 256
Henley, Account of 87
Henry I, his Laws reſpecting Marriage 275
Henry IV, of France, Anecdotes of, 153—his Character inveſtigated 154
Henry IV, Emperor, his melancholy End 116
Henry IV, Obſervations on Shakſpeare's Character of 184
Henry V, Obſervations on Shakſpeare's Character of 179
Hercules and Omphale, a new Ballet 377
Heron, Mr. Extracts from his Journey to the Weſtern Counties of Scotland 169
Herring Fiſhery, granted to the Dutch 329
Heylen, Dr. his Diſſertation on the Inventions of the Belgians 328
Hiſpaniola, Mountains of, unexplored 78
Hiſtory of the principal Rivers of Great Britain, Extract from 18
Holland, States of, order public Prayers 305
Hood, Lord, his Proceedings at Corſica 49
Horace, Eulogy of 122
Horſes, Engliſh, always valuable 369
Hot Climates. *See* Lind
Hot Weather. *See* Weather.
Hotſpur, Obſervations on Shakſpeare's Character of 180
Howe, Lord, his public Orders 66—viſited by the King 67
Hudſon, the Dwarf, Account of 248
Human Character, on a proper Eſtimate of the 93
Humming Bird, Account of the 11
Hunter, John, Memoirs of 270
Hunting, Reflections on 358
Huygens, his Diſcoveries 330

I.

Jamaica, Condition of, when wreſted from Spain 9—Mountains in, unexplored 78
James I, Anecdote of 115
Jephſon, Mr. Extracts from his Roman Portraits 121, 298
If, humorous Obſervations on the Word 410
Imitation, on the Propenſity to 35
Infidel, Reflections on the Death of a 256
Inns, Obſervations on 87
Intimacies, unequal, improper 407
Johnſon, Dr. an admirable Obſervation by 36—his Saying of Epitaphs 162—an improper Obſervation by 254—on a leading Sentiment in his Rambler 347, 422
Ireland, early Excellence of the Woollen Manufacture in 367
Iſleworth, Fire at 228
Julius Cæſar, Character of 292

K.

Keith, Marſhal, Anecdote of 246
King Henry IV, Part I, Obſervations on that Play 178

King's Theatre, Haymarket, Account of the 393
Knighthood, protected by the Anglo-Saxons 275
Knowledge, on the Purſuit of 3
Knox, Dr. his Cenſure on Common-Place Books 4

L.

Labarra, a Serpent, fatal Effects of its Bite 11
Labour, wonderful Effects of the Diviſion of 25
Labrador, Natural-Hiſtory of the Animals of 107
Lady, Origin of the Word 274
Lancaſhire, the firſt County in which Potatoes were grown 397
Land Winds, in the Weſt Indies, Account of the 8
Laudohn, Marſhal, Anecdote of 38
Lead, Poiſon of, its fatal Effects 427
Lenox, Ducheſs of, her Letter to James I 247
Lentham, Mr. on the Feeding of Sheep 79—and on the Rot in Sheep 80
Leproſies, why common formerly 366
Lequinio, M. Extract from his Prejugés Detruits 154
Leſley, George, Life of 257, 349
Leucadea, a Spaniſh Tale 236
Leyden Phial, Invention of the 330
Lightning Rods. *See* Metallic Conductors
Lind, Dr. his Eſſay on the Diſeaſes of Hot Climates 9
Linen, once extremely ſcarce in Europe 366
Lintz, Account of the City of 44
Liquors, uſed by the Anglo-Saxons 274
Lizards of the Weſt Indies, inoffenſive 11
Loan, Statement of the, for 1795 459
Logan, Maria, Extracts from her Poems 427, 441
London, City of, Election of Lord Mayor, &c. 307—Merchants of, anciently called Barons 369
Longevity, not to be accounted for 254
Looker-on, Extracts from the 427, 441
Louis XIV, Anecdotes of 118, 184, 423
Louis XVI, his Behaviour at the Place of Execution 255
Lunatic, the Law in the Caſe of one become ſo after Sentence of Death 255
Luxborough Houſe, Account of 17

M.

Macartney, Lord, his Embaſſy to China 299
Macaulay, Mrs. heavy Charge againſt 200, 272
Madajee Sindia, his Death 146
Maeſtricht taken by the French 452
Magnetic Fluid, Obſervations on the 408
Maidenhead, Account of 87
Majendie, Mr. on the Cheſnut Tree 251
Maize, or Turkey Wheat, cultivated in the Weſt Indies 9
Malmedy, taken by the French 305
Man, a gregarious Animal 37
Manners and Morals, Connection between 36
Mansfield, William Earl of, Memoirs of 187
Marlborough, John Duke of, his Greatneſs predicted 59
Maſon, Sir John, diplomatic Inſtructions to 82
Matrimony, Cuſtoms of the Anglo-Saxons and Normans reſpecting 273, 275. *See* Wales
Medical Knowledge, State of the, in the 14th Century 280
Memoirs of General Dumourier 27—of Moliere 73—of Lord Mansfield 187—of Dr. Robertſon 266—of Mr. John Hunter 270—of Taſſo 313, 411
Memory, Eſſay on 394
Metallic Conductors, an Improvement of 15
Meteorological Journal for June 34—for July 88—for Auguſt 196—for September 264—for October 362—for November 424
Michael Dean, Account of 24
Microſcope, by whom invented 330
Milk, Conſumption of in London 172—Cuſtom of keeping it in leaden Veſſels, pernicious 426
Mills for pumping up Water, and Saw Mills, where invented 330
Mirzah, the ſecond Viſion of 12
Mole, River, Account of the 425
Moliere, Memoirs of 73
Monkies, almoſt exterminated in the Weſt Indies 11
Monks, once the beſt Huſbandmen in England 364—and Artiſts 365
Months, Names of the, among the ancient Saxons 364
More, Sir Thomas, Sayings of 81—his Behaviour at his Execution cenſured 257
Mountains, of the New World, their Magnificence and Sublimity 77—on the Formation of 78
Murder, a dreadful 225
Muſic, ancient Britiſh 363, 368

N.

Napaul, *See* Nepal
Natural Hiſtory of the Porcupine 107—of the White Bear 108—of the Raindeer 108—of the Black Bear 110

Negro Funeral, Ode on seeing a 203
Nepal, Account of 323
Nequam, Alexander, curious Pun upon his Name 118
Neuhoff, Theodore Baron, King of Corsica, Account of 99
New Hampshire, Manners, &c. of the People of 433
Newton, Sir Isaac, his Reproof to Dr. Halley 40
Night, a Poem 202
Nimeguen, Sortie from 384—Evacuation of 385
Nobility, of the early Times, their Magnificence, Folly, and Barbarity 118
Novels, how to write 76
Noy, Attorney-general, Cause of his Advancement 84
Nuneham, annual Festival at 28

O.

Obligations, the Danger of some 181
Ode to Sleep 119—to Friendship 203—on a Negro Funeral 202—to the King, by Mr. Tasker 291—to Peace, by Mrs. Robinson 291—to Shakspeare 442—to Fancy 443
Odes, two, ascribed to Horace 444
Old Bailey, Proceedings at the 228, 229, 307, 308, 387, 388. *See* Trials
Opinion, Differences of, in Religion, useful 33
Offend, evacuated 62
Ovid, Eulogy of 123
Oxfordshire, Remarks during a Residence in 21, 85

P.

Painting in Oil, Invention of 329
Painting on Glass, revived by the Belgians 329
Paley, Mr. Extract from his Evidence of Christianity 30
Palmeto-Royal, Account of the 10
Panic, remarkable Effects of 17
Paoli, General, his Letter to the Corsicans 51. *See* Corsica
Parliament, Proceedings of, on the landing of the Hessians 124—on the Captivity of M. la Fayette 124—on the Treaties with our Allies 125—on the Secretary of State's Letter to the Lords Lieutenant 126—on the Augmentation of the Forces 126—on the Propriety of assimilating the Criminal Proceedings in England and Scotland 126—on the Legality of private Subscriptions for raising Forces 127, 130—on the Revenues of the East India Company 129—in the French Corps Bill 205, 210, 222—Motion respecting Sinecures, &c. 205—on the late Campaign 207—on the Volunteer Corps Bill 209—on the Prussian Subsidy 211, 287—on the Supplying of Foreign Markets with Slaves 212—Message from the King, relative to the apprehending of divers Persons, and the seizing of certain Papers 214—on a Bill to prevent Delays in Elections 214—Thanks voted to the Officers in the West Indies 214—Motion for the Production of certain Instructions to Lord Dorchester 214—Motion for the Repeal of certain Tests 215—on certain Resolutions respecting the War 283, 287—Thanks to Earl Howe 285—Monuments voted 285, 290—Thanks to Lord Hood 285—Protest against them 285—London Militia Bill 286—Thanks to the Managers of the Impeachment of Mr. Hastings 286—Sessions ended 290
Patterson, Mr. his Improvement of Metallic Conductors 15
Pawlett, William Lord, his two Maxims 83
Peace, Ode to 291—on the Expectations of a 359
Pedlar, on the Profession of a 369
Persecution, Christianity not Chargeable with 33
Perhaps, Observations on the Word 411
Phrases, palliating, dangerous Tendency of 179
Physic and Chirurgery, ancient State of 364, 366
Physiognomy, Predictions of 38—Antiquity of 407
Pilgrims, the ancient Smugglers 366
Plot against the King, Persons committed on the Charge of a 307
Poetry, poetical Address to 201—ancient British 363
Poets, ancient English, liberally patronised 367
Poland, Affairs of 142—General Kosciusko defeated 142—Cracow taken 142 Insurrection at Warsaw 142—Executions 142—Siege of Warsaw by the Prussians 142—Prussians defeated and the Siege raised 306—Wilna taken 306—Austrians defeated 306—second defeat of the Prussians 385—General Kosciusko taken Prisoner 385—Capture of Warsaw by the Russians 458
Ponthieu, Count de, his paternal Cruelty 118
Poole, melancholy Affair at 459
Pope, Mr. his Description of Timon's Villa 233
Porcupine, Natural History of the 107
Port-au-Prince taken by the English 62

Porto Rico, present State of 9
Portsmouth, Fire at 226
Potatoes, Method of raising early 397
Poverty and Riches, comparative Advantages of 197
Precedence, Punishment for violating the Order of 274
Printing, the Invention of 329
Prodigies, ridiculed 182
Prologue to The Glorious first of June 46—for the Americans at Algiers 120—to Emilia Galotti 375
Prometheus, fine Allusion to the Story of 383
Prussia, South, Insurrection in 222
Psammenitus, his remarkable Answer to Cambyses 39
Pun, a curious 118

R.

Racine, Anecdote of 75
Rage, The, a new Comedy 300
Raindeer, Natural History of the 108
Ratcliffe, Fire at 68, 147
Reading, Directions, respecting 3—the Food of the Mind 5
Reinock, Castle and Village of 43
Relations, expectant, on the Conduct of 419
Religion, the Influence of, where to be found 30
Renown, opposite Methods of acquiring 41
Rheinfels, taken by the French 452
Rhine, prodigious Timber Floats on the 41
Riches and Poverty, comparative Advantages of 197
Riots in the Metropolis 146, 147, 148, 223, 226. *See* Old Bailey.
Robertson, Dr. Memoirs of 266
Roman Customs 400
Rubens, Anecdote of 39

S.

Salt Water, Art of rendering it fresh, not a modern Discovery 289
Sea, general Resemblance of its Bottom to the Surface of the Earth 79
Sebastian, St. taken by the French 226
Sebenbergen, Account of the 46
Sepulture, a more joyous Ceremony than that of Marriage among the Anglo-Saxons 274
Serpents, not venomous in the West Indies 11—dreadful in South America 11
Severn, Fish peculiar to the 26
Shakspeare, select Passages from, No. xxix. 178—Ode to 442
Sheep, on the Feeding of 79—on the Rot in 83—Wager concerning 85
Ships, recaptured 144
Sierra Leone, Account of 166—Advices from 288
Silk, when first woven in the West of Europe 366
Singularity, affected, disgusting 38
Skaiting on the Ice, Origin of 329
Slave Trade, once prevalent in England 369
Sleep, Ode to 119
Sluys, taken by the French 220, 304
Smith, ancient Rank of a, in Wales 365
Sonnet 292—to the Polar Star 292—to Dreams 375—to the River Itchen 442
Spa, taken by the French 305
Staffordshire, Account of 105
Suffolk, Account of 265
Suicide, Thoughts on 255, 257—at Dublin 388
Surry, Account of 425

T.

Tales: Leucadea 237—Nourmahall, or the Queen of the Indies 232, 401
Tasso, Memoirs of 313, 411
Telegraphe, Account of the 281
Telescope, where invented 330
Temptation, Absence of, necessary to certain Minds 24
Tenedos, Earthquake at 222
Thelwall, Mr. tried and acquitted 447
Thermometer, by whom invented 330
Timber, Floats of, on the Rhine 41—on the dry Rot in 249
Tippo Sultan, his two Sons restored 146
Tipra, Manners of the Mountaineers of 322
Tiverton, fire at 67
Tolosa, taken by the French 226
Tooke, Mr. tried and acquitted 379
Torre del Greco, destroyed by an Eruption of Vesuvius 141
Tournaments, Account of the English 276, 278
Tournay, evacuated by the English 60
Town before you, The, a new Comedy 455
Town and Country Life, respective Advantages of 21
Treves, taken by the French 222
Trial of Mr. Eaton for a Libel 143—of sundry Persons for Sedition 143, 145, 308, 382—of the Validity of a royal Marriage 144—of John Wilkinson, a Pickpocket 144—of a Cause of Consequence to Country Shopkeepers 145—of Mr. Purefoy and Mr. Underwood for Murder 145—of a Case under the Insolvent Act 147—of a Carrier, for the illegal Collecting of Letters 148—of a Case in Canal Navigation 225—

of a Cafe of Clerical Non-reſidence 225 —of Robert Watt and Daniel Downie, for High Treaſon 227, 308—Special Commiſſion for the Trial of certain Perſons on the Charge of High Treaſon 228, 294, 307, 308—Trial of a Cafe under the Act in Favour of Benefit Societies 308—of Mr. Hardy and Mr. Tooke for High Treaſon 378—of Engliſh v. Mountain, and Brooke v. Copland 387—of John Taylor, for Bigamy 388 —of a Procureſs 388—of Meſſrs. Bonney, Kydd, Joyce, Holcroft, Thelwall, Baxter, and Richter, for High Treaſon 437—of the Proprietors of the Northern Star, for a Libel 460—of an Action of Importance to Boarding-ſchools 459
Tuf-ſtone, or Lapis Tophaceus, Account of 42

V.

Valenciennes, retaken by the French 303
Vandyck, his Greatneſs predicted by Rubens 39
Venlo, taken by the French 384
Verſes, on an airy Situation incloſed by new Buildings 119—to Autumn 201 —to Poetry 202—Night 202—to my Picture 204—October 294—on the Grave of an unfortunate Lady 373—on Tears 374—on Thought 374—Impromptu, by Voltaire 375—Mary an's Complaint 376—Winter 441—the Conſolation 441
Veſuvius, Eruption of 241
Virgil, Eulogy of 121
Viſion of Mirzah, the ſecond 12
Umbrellas, early Uſe of, in England 278

W.

Waldegrave, Earl, drowned 67
Wales, ancient Law of Marriage and Divorce in 273
Walpole, Sir Robert, Anecdote of 245
Wapentake, Origin of the Word 275
Warſaw. *See* Poland
Watt, Robert, tried 227—executed 308 —his Confeſſion 370
Weather, Hot, unfavourable to Reading 6
Weather-Boarding, a Compoſition to preſerve 249
Wedding Day, The, a new Farce 377
Well-meaning, what 104
Weſt Indies, Climate of the 6—Appearance, when diſcovered 9—not naturally unhealthy 9—their Vegetable Productions 10—Serpents, not venomous 10 —poſſeſs no Animal of Prey to deſolate their Vallies 11—their Quadrupeds and Birds 11—their Woods not inharmonious 12. *See* Mountains
Whitby, Deſtruction of the Abbey Church of 458
Wilna, taken by the Ruſſians 306
Winter, a Poem 441
Wit, on the Definitions of 244—different Claſſes of Wits 241
Witchcraft, Eſſay on 354
Wool, Engliſh, Obſervations on 85
Woollen Cloth, its early Perfection in England 364, 367, 369. *See* Ireland
Wyat, Sir Thomas, Character of 81

X.

Xamire, King of Leon, Anecdote of 17

Y.

Year, Reflections on the Concluſion of the 437
Ypres taken by the French 61

PLATES *in this* VOLUME.

	Page		Page
FRONTISPIECE		Canons, in Middleſex	233
Luxborough Houſe	17	Map of Suffolk	265
Sebenbergen	41	Head of Taſſo	313
Head of Moliere	73	Plan of the new Theatre Royal, Drury Lane	345
Map of Staffordſhire	105	Front View of the new King's Theatre, Haymarket	393
Hunting Adventure of Henry IV	153	Map of Surry	425
View of the new Theatre Royal Drury Lane	185		

ERRATA.

Page 23, Col. 2, laſt Line but one, *for* Popular *read* Populous
155, 2, Line 13, *for* Orbem *read* Orbe
246, 1, 28, *for* in the War before laſt *read* in a former War
246, 2, 41, *for* humour *read* honour
274, 1, 11, *for* Angelo *read* Anglo
384, 1, 51, *for* St. Mare *read* St. Marc